ERIC Document Resume | See Instruction Sheet | DATE OF RESUME | DATE RECEIVED

A. PUBLICATION DATA

1. ERIC NUMBER ED002476
2. ORIGINATOR CONTROL NO(S). N.A.
3. IDENTIFICATION NO. N.A.
4. AUTHOR(S): Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Washington, D.C.
5. TITLE OF DOCUMENT ABSTRACTED: The Negro in American History: A Curriculum Resource Bulletin for Secondary Schools
6. PUBLICATION TITLE: N.A.
7. EDITOR(S): N.A.
8. PLACE OF ORIGIN
ORG. Public Schools of the
ST. District of Columbia,
CITY, STATE Washington, D.C.
TELE. EXT
INST/LOC CODE
9. PUBLISHER OR SOURCE Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Washington, D.C.
10. VOL. N.A.
11. PAGES N.A.
12. MO./YR. 1964
13. TOTAL PP. 129

DO NOT WRITE IN SPACE BELOW

MICROFILM COPY AVAILABLE YES ☒ NO ☐

COPYRIGHT GRANTED YES ☒ NO ☐

COPYRIGHT RELEASE FILED YES ☒ NO ☐

TYPE OF REPORT
PROPOSAL ☐
IN-PROGRESS ☐
FINAL ☒
FOLLOW-UP ☐

OTHER ERIC REFERENCES:

ERIC SATELLITE CODE

B. INDEXING DATA

14. SUBJECT AREA
15. TYPE OF ENDEAVOR curriculum guide

16. INDEXING TERMS (6-12)

			role of American citizen
eleventh grade	social studies	teacher role	Negro role
colonization	self-image	American history	social revolution
history	chronological events		distinguished Negroes

17. ABSTRACT (MAX. 250 WORDS)

A supplement to the regular eleventh grade American History text book is given. The story of the Negro in American history and an elucidation of his contributions to our society are presented; thus an attempt is made to provide a respected self-image to all students and to emphasize their responsibilities as American citizens.

The American Negro role, from the period of exploration and colonization to the social revolution of today, is covered. A chronology of significant events and a list of distinguished Negroes is given. A bibliography is included at the end of each chapter.

ERIC No.
18. SOURCE OF ABSTRACT

C. FUNDING DATA

19. SUPPORTING ORGANIZATION
20. DIVISION OR DEPT.
21. CONTRACT NO.
PROJECT NO.
22. TOTAL COST OF PROJECT
23. DURATION OF PROJECT

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Office of Education

ERIC Form 1

INFORMATION RETRIEVAL CENTER ON THE DISADVANTAGED
Ferkauf Graduate School of Education, Yeshiva University

(R10) R25
(T6) T8 T10
T15 T34

THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY

ED002476

A CURRICULUM RESOURCE BULLETIN FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
Office of Education

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated do not necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

ED002476

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
Carl F. Hansen, Superintendent of Schools

THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY

A CURRICULUM RESOURCE BULLETIN FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Department of History

Permission to quote or reprint any section
of this material must be secured from the
Director of Curriculum, Public Schools of
the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

John M. Riecks, Deputy Superintendent of Schools
LuVerne C. Walker, Director of Curriculum
1964

MEMBERS AND OFFICIALS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

Mr. Wesley S. Williams, President
Mr. Carl C. Smuck, Vice President
Colonel West A. Hamilton
Dr. Euphemia L. Haynes
Dr. Mordecai W. Johnson
Dr. Preston A. McLendon
Mrs. Gloria K. Roberts
Mrs. Louise S. Steele
Mr. Irving B. Yochelson
Mrs. Gertrude L. Williamson, Executive Secretary

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

Dr. Carl F. Hansen

DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT

Mr. John M. Riecks	School Management and Supervision

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS

Miss Edith A. Lyons	Elementary Schools
Mr. John D. Koontz	Junior and Senior High Schools
Mr. Harold A. Clark	Adult, Industrial Education
Dr. Joseph M. Carroll	General Research, Budget and Legislation
Mr. Benjamin J. Henley	Urban Service Corps
Dr. Rufus C. Browning	Personnel
Dr. Irene C. Hypps	Pupil Personnel
Mr. George E. S. Reynolds	Business Administration
Mr. Granville W. Woodson	Buildings and Grounds

PRODUCTION COMMITTEE

Chairman: Bernard H. Nelson, Professor of History, D. C. Teachers College

Helen M. Blackburn	Roosevelt High School
Edna B. Jackson	Wilson High School
Albert O. Lewis	Eastern High School
Lillian S. Lewis	M. M. Washington Vocational High School
Marion J. Pryde	Raymond Elementary School
Harris M. Taylor	Taft Junior High School
Margaret P. Welch	Phelps Vocational High School
James B. White	Phelps Vocational High School

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Chairman: William H. Jenkins, Chief Examiner, Board of Examiners. (Formerly Supervising Director, Department of History)

Albert N. D. Brooks	Principal, Garnet-Patterson Junior High School
Francis A. Gregory	Formerly Assistant Superintendent, Adult Education, Vocational Education and Summer Schools
Theodore Libber	Assistant Director, Department of History
Charles Lofton	Principal, Dunbar High School
Lemuel A. Penn	Director, Adult and Industrial Education

Editorial Chairman: Joseph E. Penn, Supervising Director, Department of History

CONSULTANT

Dr. Benjamin Quarles
Morgan State College
Baltimore, Maryland

FOREWORD

Men cannot appreciate, respect, or understand one another until they really know one another. In our country, composed as it is of peoples of many different racial, religious, and ethnic backgrounds, there is a vital need to develop human understandings that will permit men to live and work together without prejudice and hostility. The task of providing the knowledge and skills necessary for good human relations in our classrooms and communities represents a great challenge and responsibility to our schools today.

Group life, in order to be truly democratic, must recognize and honor the contributions and achievements of all peoples, for they are a source of cultural enrichment to our entire nation. Moreover, they can do much to help us understand peoples of multiracial origins and backgrounds. But, sometimes, the story of the rise of American democracy is left incomplete through the omission, or superficial presentation, of material regarding the role of American minorities to the development of the American way of life.

The resource bulletin, The Negro in American History, developed by a school committee representing all instructional levels, is designed to help meet this need. It makes available, for the first time, in brief, but comprehensive form, material concerning Negro Americans and the part they have played in the making of our civilization. Increased knowledge of the contributions, achievements, and aspirations of this American minority should help all students to soon realize that, though men differ from one another, it is not necessary for them to differ with one another.

CARL F. HANSEN
Superintendent of School

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
PURPOSE OF THIS RESOURCE BULLETIN	3
OBJECTIVES	5
UNIT I: EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION, 1450-1763	7
UNIT II: REVOLUTION AND THE CRITICAL PERIOD, 1763-1789	15
UNIT III: BUILDING A NEW NATION, 1789-1820	23
UNIT IV: SECTIONALISM, CIVIL WAR, AND REUNION, 1820-1877	31
UNIT V: THE ACCELERATION OF INDUSTRIALISM, 1860-1920	49
UNIT VI: THE REFORM MOVEMENT, 1900-1915	61
UNIT VII: AN EMERGING WORLD POWER, 1890-1920	71
UNIT VIII: "NORMALCY", DEPRESSION AND THE NEW DEAL, 1920-1940	79
UNIT IX: AN ERA OF TOTALITARIAN AGGRESSION, 1931-1946	89
UNIT X: CHALLENGES OF A WORLD IN REVOLUTION, 1946-1963	97
CONCLUSION	109

APPENDIX

RESPONSIBLE CITIZENSHIP	113
A CORRELATION CHART	114
CHRONOLOGY OF SIGNIFICANT EVENTS	115
A CAPSULE GLIMPSE OF SOME DISTINGUISHED NEGRO AMERICANS	123
ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY	127

INTRODUCTION

On March 1, 1962, at the request of the Human Relations Committee, the Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Carl F. Hansen appointed a curriculum committee to develop a resource bulletin on The Negro in American History. The material in this bulletin is designed primarily for use as an integral part of the definitive course in American History required of all high school students in the eleventh grade. It is also, however, highly recommended for the information and use of all social studies teachers, both elementary and secondary.

This bulletin is to be used as basic text material to supplement the textbooks used in the classroom. The major emphasis in its use should not be to present Negro history, but to present the story of the Negro in the history of our country as one of the many ethnic groups that have contributed to the making of our civilization.

This preliminary edition is the result of the labors of a dedicated group of teachers and officers who deserve full credit for its development, and for conducting the research necessary to establish the accuracy of the information which it contains.

It is to be hoped that the material presented herein will do much to improve a deficient and inadequately treated area of our social studies education.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK- NOT FILMED

PURPOSE OF THIS RESOURCE BULLETIN

The textbook is only one among many educational tools - but, surely, it is a major one. Despite a growing need for all students to know and understand the role and the contributions of Negro Americans in the history of our country, textbooks continue to either ignore Negroes, or to present them as a group of inexperienced, exploited, ignorant freedmen. Where attention is given to outstanding Negro Americans, the presentation is usually insufficient in scope and depth to counteract the textbook stereotype of a racially inferior group. The Negro in American History was developed to help remedy this inadequate treatment, and to give to all students a more valid perspective concerning the role of the Negro in the building of our nation.

A comprehensive study of this bulletin should serve as an important foundation upon which to build intergroup understanding and appreciation. The influence of the Negro American on our country's past merits historical highlighting. However, the constructive contributions of the Negro to our national life are not well known. It is the purpose of this bulletin to substitute facts for distortions and false assumptions; to furnish a bridge to intergroup harmony; and to help speed the acceptance of Negroes into the full promise of American life by making their role in our nation's history more accurately known.

The successful use of this resource material should also serve as a stimulus to success for young Americans facing natural and artificial hurdles. Individuals, like nations, base their hopes for the future on the achievements made by their forebears. Many disadvantaged young people, such as the drop-outs, with the odds against them may take courage and inspiration from a knowledge of the record of Americans of color of a bygone day who were disadvantaged too, yet who marched forward to success. The Negro in American History properly presented, may assist greatly in raising many a young person's level of aspiration.

The whole world today is in the midst of a social revolution, and that revolution is changing the face of the earth - for it is a revolution of human readjustment. American Negroes are caught up in this revolution. They are determined to fulfill the American dream of brotherhood, and obtain equality of opportunity for all citizens. It is the responsibility of the social studies teacher to point out that whatever is being achieved in the present, whatever greater advance will be effected in the future, are largely made possible and greatly affected by the valiant contributions and achievements of past generations.

Finally, the aims, dreams, and ends of this revolution are altogether in the spirit of democracy and in the best American tradition. It is in this spirit that every social studies teacher should welcome this new curriculum departure, and feel motivated and inspired to use this publication wisely and completely.

OBJECTIVES

1. To provide an informative and conceptual basis which young citizens of America must possess in order to successfully attack the continuing problems involved in developing and implementing an effective program of human relations.

2. To know and appreciate the role, achievements, and significant contributions of Negro Americans to the making of America.

3. To develop both a knowledge and understanding that the American heritage is the product of men and women of diverse racial and ethnic origins.

4. To know and appreciate great men and women whose daring deeds have enriched our lives and heritage immeasurably.

5. To provide a basis for communication and understanding with regard to America's Negro minority which will encourage and enable students of different social, racial, and ethnic backgrounds to live and work together in harmony and peace.

6. To strengthen greatly each student's appreciation of the democratic way of life and to show the necessity for each student doing his part to achieve and maintain democratic values and institutions in the United States.

7. To enable each student to perform, with greater wisdom and zeal, the responsibilities of American citizenship.

8. To provide a notable and respected "image" for all students; to create a desire to make the contributions of our present day and generation worthy of our American heritage.

9. To develop for classroom use a brief, factual, authentic story of one-tenth of the American people, the amount and value of the Negro American's contribution to the growth and progress of the United States.

10. To develop the understanding that the basis of a truly democratic America lies in the recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual whatever his racial or ethnic origins may be.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-- NOT FILMED

UNIT I: EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION

1450-1763

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK- NOT FILMED

UNIT I: EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION, 1450-1763

Introduction

Negroes participated in the discovery and exploration of the New World. They came as free men, retainers, servants, and as slaves. However, as the institution of slavery developed, the majority fell into the category of slaves.

The institution of slavery developed as a result of the acute shortage of labor. The involuntary servitude of the Negro lengthened into the "peculiar institution" of slavery.

In spite of his oppression, the Negro worked diligently and fought bravely to establish the foundations of the colonial structure from which the United States of America evolved.

Relation of Africa to European Exploration

The geographical position of Africa made it inevitable that European explorers of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries would become aware of its economic possibilities. Long before the discovery of the New World, contacts had been made along the west coast by navigators en route to the East.

With the discovery and settlement of the New World, the west coast became the focal point of the commercially lucrative African slave trade. Hence, the majority of the Negroes introduced unwillingly into the New World were West Africans.

The Contribution of Negroid Peoples in Africa

Undisputed historical and archeological evidence supports the claim of Negro influence upon and participation in Egyptian civilization. There was a steady stream of black peoples into Egypt from the Upper Nile Valley. Herodotus, the Greek historian, described many Egyptians in the fifth century B.C. as "black and curly-haired".

In West Africa, Ghana, Melle, and Songhay, all with Negroid populations, had developed advanced civilizations by the time the Portuguese explorers reached Africa in the fifteenth century. The ancient African state of Ghana is the first West African state of which there is any record. That record which covers the period from the fourth through the thirteenth centuries reveals a high degree of political organization and a well-developed economy. Though basically agricultural, commerce, with trading centers as far away as Cairo and Baghdad, was not neglected. In the eleventh century, Moslem invaders who sought to force Islam upon the people and the ensuing religious strife undermined the once prosperous kingdom so that it fell easy prey to successive waves of conquerors who destroyed it in the thirteenth century.

Melle began its rise to prominence during the years of the decline of ancient Ghana and, by 1235, had become a strongly organized kingdom. At its zenith in the first half of the fourteenth century, accounts of royal pilgrimages to Mecca indicate as high a level of attainment as any of that period. On his travels in fourteenth century Melle, Ibn Batuta, the famous Arabian geographer, was greatly impressed by "the discipline of its officials and provincial governors, the excellent condition of public finance, and the luxury and rigorous and complicated ceremonial of the royal receptions, and the respect accorded to the decisions of justice and to the authority of the sovereign". The economy of Melle was predominantly agricultural, but a substantial number of its inhabitants engaged in commerce, mining, construction, and weaving.

Songhay remained a relatively insignificant kingdom from the eighth through the mid-fourteenth century. The conquest of lesser states and finally of Melle raised Songhay to the position of the most powerful kingdom in West Africa, by the end of the fifteenth century. Songhay fell in 1591 to the Moors, expelled from Spain, and their allied Spanish renegades.

The lesser states of West Africa which managed to repel the attacks of the more powerful kingdoms of Melle and Songhay were fiercely independent and remained so until the nineteenth century when France incorporated them into its African empire. Their survival in the presence of conquering neighbors is indicative of the efficiency of their political and military leadership.

Little is known about the African states south of the equator. There was certainly some political organization, and there is considerable anthropological and archaelogical evidence that in some areas there was an advanced culture.

The Negro in the Discovery of the New World

Negroes participated along with Europeans in the discovery and exploration of the New World, not only as slaves, but also as free men, retainers, and servants. Nuflo de Olano, who accompanied Balboa in 1513, was one of thirty Negroes in the expedition. Varying numbers of Negroes participated in the expeditions of Cortes, Velas, Coronado, DeSoto, and Pizarro. Ayllon had Negroes in his troops in 1526 when he marched from the Florida peninsula northward to establish San Miguel in what is now Virginia. The most famous Negro of this era was Estevanico, or Little Stephen, who, in March 1539, blazed the way for the Spaniards into what is now New Mexico and Arizona. He sent back crosses of increasing size to indicate his progress and when they reached the height of a man, the Spaniards knew to press forward. By 1540, Negroes at Guamanga had established a brotherhood of the "True Cross of Spaniards".

The Development of Slavery in the Spanish Colonies

Although some Negroes who participated with the Spanish in the exploration and discovery of the New World were freemen, the majority of them were slaves. Their numbers increased after 1517 when the African slave trade was given special sanction by the Spanish rulers in order to alleviate the acute labor shortage in the Spanish colonies. Most were destined for the Antilles where enslavement, slaughter, and disease had so decimated the aborigines that they provided an inadequate labor force. Approximately ten thousand Africans per year were being imported into Cuba, Puerto Rico, Hispaniola, and Jamaica by 1540. The "middle passage", the term used to describe the slave trade route between the West Coast of Africa and the West Indies, became one of the most infamous and inhuman commercial highways in history and remained so until the abolition of the slave trade in the early nineteenth century.

Other Spanish colonies in Latin America supplemented and often supplanted Indian slaves with African slaves.

The Development of Slavery in the English Colonies

The English brought no Negroes with them on their expeditions to the New World, but acquired Negroes as involuntary indentured servants when a Dutch trader, in 1619, brought approximately twenty to Virginia. Virginia records offer proof that the first Negroes to the English colonies were brought as indentured servants, for some served out their terms and became freemen. Anthony Johnson, for example, not only attained his freedom, but also became a slaveholder. Virginia enumerations of 1623 and 1624 list Negroes as servants. The Virginia statute of 1661, which lengthened the period of indenture for non-Christians who tried to flee their servitude, was the first step toward legal recognition of slavery in that colony.

Slavery developed as a legal institution in the English colonies toward the latter half of the seventeenth century. Maryland and the Carolinas legalized slavery by statutory enactment in 1663. Rhode Island gave it legal sanction in 1652, but limited it to a period of ten years. In 1665, New York recognized voluntary enslavement, and in 1684 gave legal sanction to the institution. New Jersey gave de facto recognition and encouragement as early as 1664, and in 1702 made statutory provision for it. Both Pennsylvania and Delaware gave de facto recognition to slavery, but neither ever enacted statutory provisions for its support. Massachusetts, though it prohibited slavery in its "Body of Liberties", did recognize captives of war as slaves and those who voluntarily accepted this status. No legal sanction was ever given to slavery by either Connecticut or New Hampshire, but together with Massachusetts and Rhode Island, they became the ranking slave-trading states of the Union. Thus, slavery was a recognized and accepted fact in all of the English colonies in the seventeenth century, though only eight of them extended complete or limited sanction to the institution.

The Negro in the Colonial Labor Forces

The entire English colonial area benefited from Negro slavery, for it was not confined to any one section of the colonies. Its establishment was the conscious choice of men who wished to exploit the economic resources of the area. Although slavery proved a satisfactory solution to the chronic and pressing labor shortage, faced primarily by the agricultural colonies, it resulted in the merciless exploitation of human beings.

White indentured servitude was clearly not a satisfactory solution to the labor problem, largely because of the expense, difficulties, and uncertainties involved in recruiting indentured servants, the relatively short term of indenture (usually five to seven years), and the frequency with which servants escaped into the unsettled territories of the frontier. Negro slavery eliminated these difficulties because the source of supply was unlimited, the status was a permanent one, and the visibility of escapees made them more easily apprehended. Moreover, the "Christianizing" influences and "opportunities" which slavery afforded could be used to justify the enslavement of African "heathens".

Negro slaves were involved in almost every phase of colonial economic activity, rather than exclusively in agricultural and field work as is commonly assumed. Their employment depended upon the economic interests and needs of their masters, so that many performed a variety of skilled and unskilled services. For example, in 1679, Mingo, a hired Negro of Miles Foster, was the manager of a large warehouse in Boston. Similarly, other Negroes were employed as goldsmiths, silversmiths, portrait painters, cabinet makers, and in many other skilled and semi-skilled trades.

In the South, Negro slaves nearly monopolized jobs in the mechanical arts during the eighteenth century. Advertisements of that period attest to the demand for Negro artisans, especially carpenters, coopers, brickmakers, and iron workers. The work of Negro ironsmiths is still seen in many of the old colonial mansions of the Old French Quarter in New Orleans, Louisiana. The self-contained economy of the southern plantation demanded specialization, so that skilled slaves were highly valued throughout the Southern Colonies and commanded high fees when hired out, and high prices when sold.

The Negro in the Colonial Military Forces

Negroes contributed to the military defense of the colonies as is evidenced by their participation in every war in which the colonies became involved. In 1636, Massachusetts ordered all "ablebodied Negroes, living with, or servants to, the English" to be enrolled in the militia. From 1619 to 1636, Negroes in Virginia aided in the suppression of Indian uprisings. South Carolina in 1671 enlisted Negroes to build "entrenchments, parapets, and flankers"; and in 1704, ordered slaves to be equipped with "lance, hatchet, or gun and to report to the colors of their respective captains". In 1676, Rhode Island subjected all Negroes for enlistment for training in the use of arms. Free Negroes were often assigned to non-combat units to prevent attempts to free enslaved Negroes through disciplined armed force. Massachusetts inaugurated this policy by a statute enacted in 1707.

In the four major wars between France and England between 1689 and 1763, Negroes fought as regulars with the troops of both nations. In the Royal Navy, they served in all capacities and were also in the "colonial navy of privateers". The first English military expedition along the waters of the Ohio south of Pittsburgh had "Negroes and mulattoes employed as pioneers and hatchetmen".

Negroes also participated actively in the struggle between the colonies and England over the rights of the colonies. Newspapers of the period report their activities and protests which were frequently coupled with their own protests against slavery.

Negro Protests Against Slavery

The Negro's reaction against enforced servitude or enslavement expressed itself in persistent rebellion and intermittent revolt. The first known revolt occurred as early as 1526 in a Spanish settlement near the mouth of the Pedee River in South Carolina where Negroes destroyed the settlement and sailed away to freedom. In the English colonies, the first slave revolts occurred in 1663. According to Aptheker, the records show six major revolts between 1663-1700, all of which involved large numbers of slaves. In addition, there were numerous smaller rebellions which caused considerable damage and made slaveholders fearful for their lives and property. Legislation enacted by colonial bodies during these early years attests to the fear of white colonists of Negro slave revolts.

Where organized revolt and overt action were impossible because of stringent prohibitions embodied in the "Black Codes", Negro rebellion against enslavement took the forms of individual passive resistance and sabotage, which southern planters, unable or unwilling to recognize the human dignity and aspirations of Negroes, often interpreted as irresponsibility and laziness. Suicide, poisoning, infanticide, and escape were manifest forms of individual discontent and protest.

During the struggles between the colonies and England over the rights of the colonists, Negroes showed interest, not only in helping the cause of the colonists in their demands as free men, but also in securing their own freedom and rights. Their protests against English tyranny to the various colonial legislative bodies were often accompanied by their own petitions requesting freedom from slavery. Many colonial leaders expressed concern over the dual role they symbolized as the oppressed and the oppressor. In his speech, "Rights of the English Colonies Asserted and Approved", James Otis denounced the inconsistency of the colonial leaders and asserted the right of the Negro to freedom. Aggressive Negroes in the north, appealing to the courts during this period of colonial ferment, were often granted their freedom.

UNIT I. SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aptheker, Herbert. "American Slave Revolts". Science and Society. 1:512-538. 1937.

Franklin, John Hope. From Slavery to Freedom. New York. 1961.

Handlin, Oscar. Race and Nationality in American Life. New York. 1957.

Herskovits, Melville J. The Myth of the Negro Past. Boston. 1958.

Murdock, George Peter. Africa, Its People and Their Cultural History. New York. 1959.

Logan, Rayford W. "Estevanico, Negro Discoverer of the Southwest". Phylon I: Fourth Quarter, 1940.

Rippy, J. F. "The Negro and Spanish Pioneers in the New World". The Journal of Negro History VI: April, 1921.

Hartgrove, W. B. "The Negro Soldier in the American Revolution". The Journal of Negro History I: April, 1916.

Jackson, Luther P. "Virginia Negro Soldiers and Seamen in the American Revolution". The Journal of Negro History XXVII: July, 1942.

UNIT II: REVOLUTION AND THE CRITICAL PERIOD

1763-1789

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK- NOT FILMED

UNIT II: REVOLUTION AND THE CRITICAL PERIOD, 1763-1789

Introduction

The desire for independence from the English crown permeated all classes in the English colonies, and the struggle for freedom ultimately involved every segment of the colonial population. In the conflict between Mother Country and colony, the Negro was both a "participant and a symbol". There is much evidence of his participation on both the battlefronts and on the home front behind the lines. It is justly contended that during the War, the Negro's loyalty was more to a principle than to a place or people, for he fought with the Red-Coats when the British promised freedom, and he later fought in large numbers with the colonists when a similar offer was made.

The Negro soldier does not stand out as a racial entity during the Revolutionary War. There were few all-Negro units in the War for Independence; thus, the history of the Negro soldier must be viewed as part of the history of the American soldier in the Revolution. So thoroughly were Negroes integrated in colonial and Continental military units that it is usually difficult to identify a soldier as to race. Moreover, since most Negroes of the period were unlettered and thus generally inarticulate, few records have come to us from their hand. One clue to racial identity, however, is the use of the prefix "black" before a name or the use of only a single name for an individual.

During the first two years of the Revolutionary War, Negroes saw little service on the American side. Tardiness in utilizing Negroes for military purposes was, in part, the result of a general reluctance to deprive owners of their slaves or servants; but there also existed a great fear on the part of many masters against arming an enslaved people. Moreover, there was a near consensus that the Negro was an inferior order of being; he had capabilities as a servant, not as a soldier. It was only when an acute shortage of military manpower existed, and when the British policy of recruiting Negroes proved successful that fears and prejudices were put aside and Negroes accepted into military service. Under this reversal of policy, a large number of Negroes were ultimately employed by the services as sailors, soldiers, and laborers.

The Problem of Negro Enlistments

The revolutionary philosophy, a product of the Enlightenment which emphasized natural rights and human equality, received its first practical application in the War for Independence. It urged mankind to protect liberty and freedom, even through revolutionary struggle, against those who would deny them. Acceptance of this philosophy had tremendous implications for Negroes in the colonies. It raised serious questions: Did the "rights of man" include the Negro? To what extent would, or should, the Negro be permitted to participate in the struggle for freedom.

In 1775, the official policy of both colonial and Continental officials was the rejection of all proposals calling for the recruitment and employment of Negro soldiers. As early as 1656 and 1660, Connecticut and

Massachusetts had excluded Negroes from service in their militias,and this policy was generally continued by these and other colonies during the first two years of the War. On three occasions during 1775, orders from General Washington to recruitment officers indicated that Negro recruits were not needed and ordered that none be enlisted. An unsuccessful effort was made by some persons to bring about the discharge of Negroes already in the service.

There was a complete reversal of policy with regard to Negro enlistments early in 1776 as a result of the Proclamation issued by Lord Dunmore, Governor of Virginia, a few months earlier. Lord Dunmore and British military officers concluded that the colonies would be deprived of a valuable source of labor necessary for the war effort if slaves were recruited for the British Army. The resultant Proclamation urged Negro slaves to escape to Britain's lines and join her forces. Freedom was promised to all who came.

The success of the British slave recruitment policy caused considerable alarm in the colonies. Immediately, fears of a general slave uprising were resurrected. Colonial authorities attempted to counter the British policy with the contention that slavery had been forced upon the colonies by the British. Moreover, they asserted that slaves deserting to the British would, perhaps, be no better off, for the British would probably transport them to the West Indies.

One result of the "British Threat" was that both the Continental Congress and the colonies altered their policies to permit the enlistment of Negroes. Acting in January, 1776, on the advice of General Washington, who was greatly alarmed over the prospects of large numbers of slaves in the British armies, the Continental Congress authorized Negro enlistments. However, enlistment was restricted to free Negroes.

Many colonies, under a liberalized policy, authorized the enlistment of both slaves and free Negroes. In 1776, New York authorized the enlistment of free Negroes as substitutes for whites who had been drafted, and later accepted slaves promising them freedom after three years service. Virginia accepted Negroes in the same year providing that they had been certified as free men by the courts. In 1778, Rhode Island and Massachusetts authorized the enlistment of Negroes - slave and free. Both were so successful that separate Negro regiments were organized. Competition for Negro recruits reached the point in the New England colonies where New Hampshire offered free Negroes the same bounty offered white recruits and gave the bounty to the master as payment if the recruit was a slave. Either through volunteering, draft, or substitution, it is estimated that the Continental Army and colonial militias employed approximately 5,000 Negroes as soldiers.

The promise of freedom at the end of service motivated many Negroes to enlist. The length of service was usually fairly long for conflict of interests seldom proved a deterrent. One Negro soldier, Cesar Perry, was honored for his long service in the Seventh Massachusetts Regiment.

Outstanding Negroes of the Revolutionary Period

The Revolutionary Period produced a small group of outstanding Negroes who gained distinction as a result of both military and non-military accomplishments. Prominent among the former group are Crispus Attucks, Peter Salem, and Salem Poor. Negroes served in varying capacities in the Revolutionary forces - as infantrymen, orderlies, body-servants, messengers, spies, and sailors. In whatever capacity, many had opportunities to display the type of valor and courage which won them the immediate praise of their fellow soldiers and sometimes the commendation of civil officials.

Crispus Attucks, the runaway slave who lost his life in the Boston Massacre in 1770, is perhaps the most widely known Negro of the Revolutionary Period. He was the first American to perish and thereby be identified with the cause of American liberty. During the period of twenty years between his escape from his owner, and the evening of the Massacre in 1770, Attucks had led an obscure existence. And there was no indication of the impending fame which circumstances would force upon him when he, carrying a big stick, joined a group of twenty to thirty men to face a group of British soldiers.

Two Negro soldiers frequently cited for valorous military service during the Revolutionary War are Peter Salem and Salem Poor. The former, given his freedom by his owner, distinguished himself in battle at Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill; and the latter, at the Battle of Charleston where he "behaved like an experienced officer as well as an excellent soldier." Sometimes Negro slaves proved valuable in penetrating British lines and securing military information for colonial commanders. Such service, as in the case of "James Lafayette" of Kent County, Virginia, was sometimes rewarded with freedom and a life pension by grateful colonial or state legislatures.

Among those Negroes who gained distinction through non-military activities are Paul Cuffe, the businessman and humanitarian; Prince Hall, the minister; Benjamin Banneker, the mathematician and astronomist; and Phyllis Wheatley, the poetess. Paul Cuffe was a successful businessman in Massachusetts where he operated a shipyard. He gave leadership to improve political and educational opportunities for Negroes in Dartmouth, Massachusetts. A petition of protest by Cuffe and others against the imposition of taxes upon Negroes who were denied the suffrage played a significant part in the later extension of suffrage to Negroes in Massachusetts in 1783. To provide educational opportunities to Negro children in his community for whom public authorities failed to provide, Cuffe constructed a school on his own farm, and hired a teacher to give instruction. Prince Hall is remembered chiefly for the founding of the Negro Masonic Order in America in 1787 under authority of a charter granted from London. He frequently spoke out against slavery and the slave trade, and supported the petitions of slaves seeking emancipation. Both Cuffe and Hall appear to have been men of considerable wealth.

Unlike Paul Cuffe and Prince Hall who gained distinction in the social and political area, Benjamin Banneker gained distinction in the fields of mathematics, astronomy, and the mechanical arts. Born a free Negro in Maryland in 1731, Banneker became one of the most noted astronomers and mathematicians of the period. He is said to have been the first American to make a clock, and he successfully foretold eclipses and predicted the locations of stars. Perhaps his greatest distinction came when he was appointed a professional member of the commission headed by Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant to define the boundaries and plan the streets of Washington, D. C.

Phyllis Wheatley gained fame through her poetry. A former slave girl who was given freedom in 1773 by owners who had also given her an education, she produced poetry considered excellent by critics of the eighteenth century. Her poems were later collected and published under the title of "Poems on Various Subjects, Religious and Moral."

Influence of the Revolution Upon Slavery

One of the most significant results of the Revolutionary Period and the struggle for freedom was its impact upon the institution of slavery. Many persons, brought to realize the inconsistency between slavery and the ideals of the Revolution, became increasingly articulate in demanding that the principles of liberty and equality be extended to Negroes. Both Thomas Jefferson and the Marquis de Lafayette expressed their conviction that slavery was an evil. Though the author of the Declaration of Independence never accepted the idea that the Negro was "created equal", he contended that the Negro should not be deprived of the basic natural right of freedom. Jefferson's position on slavery caused Thaddeus Kosciusko, the Polish patriot who served with the Continental Army during the war, to request that he be executor of his will which stipulated that his American funds be used to "purchase and educate slaves so that they may be good citizens of their country and defenders of its liberties." Benjamin Franklin and Benjamin Rush, the famous Philadelphia physician, also spoke out in opposition to slavery.

The growing conviction that the "rights of man" applied to the Negro resulted in the growth of anti-slavery sentiment and the initiation of emancipation movements, particularly in the North and Middle states. Anti-slavery sentiment generally expressed itself in the organization of numerous anti-slavery and manumission societies, the first of which had been organized in 1775 by a group composed largely of Quakers, who had long been enemies of slavery. Anti-slavery sentiment was particularly strong among church groups, for in addition to the Quakers, both the Methodists and to a more limited extent the Baptists revealed an inclination in this direction. By 1792, such organizations had been established in every state from Virginia to Massachusetts.

For the most part, anti-slavery societies of the period directed their efforts toward three basic goals: (1) the immediate manumission of individual slaves, (2) the abolition of the slave-trade, and (3) the ultimate abolition of the institution entirely. Petitions and memorials were circulated and presented to state legislatures in an effort to influence legislative policy with regard to slavery. Benjamin Franklin, elected president of the Pennsylvania Society for Abolition, asked Congress in 1790 "to countenance the restoration of liberty to those unhappy men, who alone in this land of freedom are degraded into perpetual bondage."

In the years immediately after the Revolutionary War, there was much encouraging action by state legislation with regard to anti-slavery goals indicated above. Between 1783 and 1787, Maryland, North Carolina, and South Carolina enacted legislation against the slave trade which either limited the trade, or imposed greatly increased duties upon the importation of slaves. Other states took action to implement a program of gradual abolition. Pennsylvania, in 1780, provided for the gradual abolition of slavery over a period of twenty-eight years and, three years later, the courts of Massachusetts held that slavery had in fact been abolished under the Constitution of 1780. Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New York enacted legislation providing for abolition in 1786.

A careful examination of the Revolutionary Period and its effects upon the Negro leads one to conclude that Negroes were definitely involved and were participants in the struggle for freedom, often despite overt opposition to their participation. Moreover, the Revolution offered many Negroes an opportunity to gain freedom either as a result of war service, or as a result of the application of the Revolutionary Spirit to them after the War. But, the conservative reaction which set in after 1790 and the new regard for property and property rights tended to undermine the movement for freedom.

UNIT II: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aptheker, Herbert. The Negro in the American Revolution. New York: International Publishers. 1940.

Aptheker, Herbert. A Documentary History of the Negro People in the United States. New York: McLeod Publishers. 1951.

Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc. 1961.

Dumond, Dwight L. Anti-Slavery. The Crusade for Freedom in America. University of Michigan Press. 1961.

Franklin, John Hope. From Slavery to Freedom. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. 1961.

Frazier, Edward Franklin. The Negro in the United States. Revised edition. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1957.

Myrdal, Gunnar. An American Dilemma. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1944.

Quarles, Benjamin. The Negro in the American Revolution. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1961.

Wesley, Charles H. Richard Allen, Apostle of Freedom. Washington, D.C.: Associated Publishers, Inc. 1935.

Williams, George Washington. The History of the Negro Race in America. New York: G. T. Putnam's Sons. 1883.

Woodson, Carter G. The History of the Negro Church. Revised edition. Washington, D. C.: The Associated Publishers, Inc. 1945.

Woodson, Carter G. and Wesley, Charles H. The Negro in Our History. Washington, D. C.: The Associated Publishers, Inc. 1962.

UNIT III: BUILDING A NEW NATION

1789-1820

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK- NOT FILMED

UNIT III: BUILDING A NEW NATION, 1789-1820

Introduction

The years 1789-1820 were uncertain years for the New Republic. A great experiment in government was to be undertaken without benefit of either precedent or guide. Moreover, there was at home and abroad much suspicion and antagonism toward the new government. The government and its leaders generally followed the conservative philosophy which dominated the period, and which placed a great deal of emphasis upon property and property rights. The effort and interest absorbed in launching the government and protecting American rights against England and France left little time for interest in the unfinished stride toward freedom. Thus, during these years there was little interest in Negroes as a group, and whatever small advances they made were largely the product of their own independent effort.

The Constitution and the Negro

Utilizing the enthusiasm which had been displayed in support of the "rights of man" philosophy, anti-slavery leaders attempted to put an end to slavery immediately after the Revolution. Their efforts, however, were largely failure, except for gradual emancipation measures in a few states and the Ordinance of 1787 prohibiting slavery and involuntary servitude in the Northwest Territory. Though some states had abolished the slave trade prior to 1787, most of them took no action in the matter.

The same regard for property which resulted in opposition to anti-slavery proposals also led to support for the Constitutional Convention. Property owners were among the chief supporters of the movement, and those who assembled in Philadelphia in 1787 were determined to establish safeguards for property. Property, in their opinion, was the basis of government; and its protection was the primary function of government. Considering these convictions, it was inevitable that issues involving slavery, considered property by southerners, as ships and warehouses were considered property by northerners, would be injected into the discussion.

The Constitutional Convention considered three matters directly related to the Negro and slavery: apportionment of representation, abolition of the slave trade, and rendition of fugitive slaves. Once it was decided that representation in the lower chamber of the national legislature would be apportioned on the basis of the population in each state, the question arose over who was to be counted. Counting slave property as people, desired by southern states, would give southern states increased representation. Sectional differences on this issue were compromised by a provision inserted in the Constitution which based representation on free persons; indentured servants; Indians, when taxed; and "three-fifths of all other persons." The same formula was to be employed in the apportionment of direct taxes among the states. This provision remained a part of the Constitution until its repeal by the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment which apportioned representation on the "whole number of persons in each state."

Though the issue of counting slaves for apportionment of representation had been settled, there remained the issue of the abolition of the slave trade. Some states had abolished the trade, but it was felt by many that a direct national ban on the trade was desirable and necessary for effective action in the matter. When the question reached the floor, it evoked such bitter debate that breakup of the Convention was threatened. Ultimately, a compromise permitting the trade for a period of twenty years was written into the Constitution. Opponents of the slave trade, while not satisfied, had secured national action on the problem. On the other hand, proponents, unable to block national action, won a respite of twenty years, an ample period for stocking the nation, especially the South, with slaves.

Unlike the issues of counting slaves for representation or the abolition of the slave trade, the issue of rendition of fugitive slaves failed to evoke significant partisan controversy. Concern for property dictated that property be protected. Thus, Article IV, Section 2, provided that escaping slaves be returned to their owners.

Independent Effort

The years 1789-1820 reveal two vastly different lines of development by which Negroes attempted to improve their condition in the United States. Both movements utilized concerted action on the part of Negroes; but while one centered on religion and the church, the other was militant and self-assertive and expressed itself through insurrection.

Negroes of the post-Revolutionary period first sought to gain a measure of economic independence and elevate their group intellectually. Self-improvement in some instances took the form of benevolent and fraternal societies. Probably the first such organization was the Free African Society established in Philadelphia in 1787 largely through the efforts of Richard Allen and Absalom Jones. Designed as a mutual aid society, it contained features of life insurance with benefits paid to "widows and fatherless children." In 1796, the Boston African Society was established with provisions for aiding the sick and widows. Similar aid societies were formed in New York, Newport, and in other northern cities with progressive free Negro communities. These societies maintained a steady correspondence, and members exchanged visits; thus, linking together the main centers of the free Negro population.

In addition to establishing benevolent societies, free Negroes of the Early National Period were deeply interested in intellectual advancement as evidenced by their frequent efforts to secure educational opportunities. In 1787, free Negroes in Boston petitioned the legislature for equal educational facilities for "our children which now receive no benefit from the free schools in Boston." Educational ambitions were furthered by schools established by various abolition and manumission societies most of which favored education for Negroes. Probably the best known of such schools was the New York Free African School established by the New York Manumission Society in 1787. In 1818, the Pennsylvania Augustine Society was organized by prominent free Negroes of Philadelphia "for the education of free persons of colour".

Though benevolent societies and desire for educational opportunities reveal the interests of Negroes of the period in group advancement, it was in the area of religion that Negro cooperation and independence was most apparent. The movement for an independent church offered an opportunity for cooperative action in the Negro community, and provided a training ground for Negro leaders. Under Negro leaders, the church was more than a religious unit; it was the center of social life in the Negro community as well.

Perhaps the most outstanding Negro leader of the period was Richard Allen, who gained prominence through his great work in the church. Allen was also very active in most of the social and economic programs of the free Negro community in Philadelphia. Richard Allen, born a slave, through hard work and thrift was able to purchase his freedom for $2000. He was converted to Christianity early in life and became a self-taught preacher. As a result of racial prejudice in the Methodist Episcopal Church in Philadelphia, Allen and other free Negroes withdrew from that body and organized the African Methodist Episcopal Church of which Allen later became bishop. Allen's influence and activities ranged far beyond church and religious matters, for he was one of the organizers of the Free African Society; and during the yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia in 1793, he organized relief for Negroes. In 1812, he helped raise a company of Negro militiamen when it was feared that the British would march north from Washington.

Absalom Jones, another Negro prominent in Church matters, was second only to Richard Allen in social and religious affairs among free Negroes in Philadelphia. He worked with Allen in establishing both the African Methodist Episcopal Church, and the Free African Society. The two eventually parted amicably, with Jones who felt drawn to the Anglican tradition becoming the rector of the first separate Protestant Episcopal Congregation for Negroes, the St. Thomas Episcopal Church.

Daniel Coker and Lott Carey were also prominent Negroes in church matters during this period. Coker worked with Allen and Jones in establishing the independent Negro church, and later went to Africa with ninety emigrants in 1814 to organize a Negro settlement there. Carey was a pioneer among Baptist missionaries. Self-taught, Lott Carey worked and saved enough money to purchase his freedom and that of his family. Carey and Coker aided in laying the foundations for the West African settlement which later became the Negro republic of Liberia.

Efforts of Negroes to secure freedom and independence sometimes assumed the form of direct action as well as educational and religious activity. Various slave uprisings and fears of such uprisings negates the frequently expressed theory of docility and contentment of Negro slaves during this period. Negro insurrections, inspired by the successful slave revolt in Santo Domingo, flared up on several occasions between 1800-1820.

The most important of the slave uprisings was that planned and led by Gabriel Prosser in Virginia in 1800. This was a well-planned and extensive conspiracy which involved several thousand slaves. Prosser planned to march on Richmond, seize the arsenal there, and free the slaves. The plot failed when knowledge of it was disclosed by two slaves. The leader and thirty-five slaves were executed.

Despite the failure of Prosser's insurrection, other slave revolts were planned, knowledge of which came to light. There is evidence of similar plans in Virginia in 1803 and 1816 though neither was successfully executed. In South Carolina, Denmark Vesey, a well-educated free Negro planned an uprising in 1822. This, too, failed when the plan was disclosed.

Such evidence of slave discontent, and uneasy fears of a successful slave revolt convinced many southerners that slavery would remain insecure unless avenues of information to Negroes were closed. To accomplish this, Negroes were forbidden the use of the postal service in some places, and to preach or teach Negroes. It became unlawful for Negroes to assemble without permission. Free Negroes were forbidden to enter the state as a precautionary measure, and some states drove free Negroes from their borders.

During this period of fear, many southerners became strong proponents of colonization schemes for free Negroes. Successful colonization would help rid the states of free Negroes, many of whom were involved in insurrectionary schemes. As early as 1805, Virginia petitioned Congress to settle free Negroes in a portion of the Lousiana Territory. But as white settlers pushed into the Territory, no more was heard of this proposal.

The Negro and the War of 1812

When the war with England opened in 1812, Negroes once again showed their loyalty to their country. Free Negroes and slaves, with the permission of their masters, were permitted to enlist. Freedom was promised slaves who did enlist. In 1814, New York authorized the enlistment of two regiments of "men of color," of one thousand men each. Not a large number of Negro soldiers were enlisted in New England and the Middle States, for these sections had little enthusiasm for the war.

Negro soldiers saw service with General Andrew Jackson in the Battle of New Orleans. He appealed to the Free Negroes of the city to enlist and support their country. Former policies of exclusion, he admitted, were mistaken policies, for now "your country looks with confidence to her adopted children for a valorous support as a faithful return for advantages enjoyed under her mild and equitable government." Two battalions of free Negroes who responded to the General's appeal fought gallantly, and earned his praise for their valor and ardor.

Substantial numbers of Negroes also served in the Navy. One naval commander, Captain Oliver H. Perry, was very unreceptive to the fifty Negroes in his crew, but he later came to praise them generously for their bravery under fire. One Negro seaman, John Johnson, was singled out for special praise by his commander, Nathaniel Shaler, as a man whose name "ought to be registered in the book of fame, and remembered with reverence as long as bravery is considered a virtue."

As in the Revolutionary War, the British urged American slaves to escape to British lines. Many slaves in search of freedom did escape, some of whom gained their freedom as promised. Others, however, were carried to the West Indies and sold into slavery. The subject of indemnity for these fugitives remained an issue in Anglo-American relations for more than a decade.

The Decline of Anti-Slavery Sentiment

The anti-slavery movement, which had such promising beginnings in the decade immediately following the Revolution, noticeably declined during the period 1789-1820. During these years, there was an increased demand for slaves on the one hand and a persistent desire to get rid of free Negroes on the other. The development of the New England textile industry and the invention of the cotton gin were two major factors in the new economic significance given to slavery. These developments, which resulted in the extension of cotton culture into the lower Mississippi Valley created an almost insatiable demand for slave labor. It has been estimated that approximately 100,000 slaves were imported between 1790 and 1808 to help meet this need. Now fewer and fewer voices were raised for abolition and for effective enforcement of legislation against the foreign slave trade.

Accompanying the increased demand for slaves was a movement to rid the South of its free Negro population since free Negroes were a source of danger to slavery in the South. They were, moreover, competitors of white laborers in both North and South. These considerations led many persons in both sections of the nation to support movements for the colonization of Negroes abroad. The American Colonization Society founded in 1816, was supported as an instrument to help achieve this goal.

UNIT III: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aptheker, Herbert. *The Negro in the American Revolution.* New York: International Publishers. 1940.

Aptheker, Herbert. *A Documentary History of the Negro People in the United States.* New York: McLeod Publishers. 1951.

Bardolph, Richard. *The Negro Vanguard.* New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc. 1961.

Dumond, Dwight L. *Anti-Slavery. The Crusade for Freedom in America.* University of Michigan Press. 1961.

Franklin, John Hope. *From Slavery to Freedom.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf. 1961.

Frazier, Edward Franklin. *The Negro in the United States.* Revised edition. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1957.

Myrdal, Gunnar. *An American Dilemma.* New York: Harper & Brothers. 1944.

Wesley, Charles H. *Richard Allen, Apostle of Freedom.* Washington, D.C.: Associated Publishers, Inc. 1935.

Williams, George Washington. *The History of the Negro Race in America.* New York: G. T. Putnam's Sons. 1883.

Woodson, Carter G. *The History of the Negro Church.* Revised edition. Washington, D. C.: The Associated Publishers, Inc. 1945.

Woodson, Carter G. and Wesley, Charles H. *The Negro in Our History.* Washington, D. C.: The Associated Publishers, Inc. 1962.

UNIT IV: SECTIONALISM, CIVIL WAR, AND REUNION

1820-1877

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-- NOT FILMED

UNIT IV: SECTIONALISM, CIVIL WAR, AND REUNION, 1820-1877

SECTIONALISM

Introduction

The years 1820-1877 witnessed the growth of sectionalism, the coming of the Civil War, and the reunion of the nation. Beginning soon after 1820 and reaching its climax in the decade of the fifties, sectionalism was reflected in nearly every political and economic issue of the period. This is all the more significant in view of the fact that the period 1789-1815 had revealed unmistakable indications of the growth of a strong national consciousness. It appeared at that time that evidences of strong sectional attachments, which had first become apparent at the Constitutional Convention in 1787, had been successfully eliminated.

Perhaps, the most controversial and explosive of the numerous sectional issues of the period were those relating to slavery. Increasingly after 1820, sectionalism became more strident as the divergent sectional interests regarding slavery reflected themselves in public policy and public discussions. Heated controversy accompanied discussions of the status of slavery in the western territories, admission of new western states to the Union, state control of anti-slavery propaganda, and the rendition of runaway slaves.

In a cumulative sense, these matters created a situation in which communication and understanding among the sections were replaced by fear and feelings of insecurity. The result was the appeal to arms in 1861. Though the causes of the Civil War were far more basic than the controversy regarding slavery, embracing as they did the question of the nature of the Federal Union and the locus of sovereignty, slavery ultimately so colored nearly every public issue that in the popular mind, it became "the cause" of the War.

Once the Civil War began in 1861. the Federal Government was confronted with questions regarding the maintenance of federal authority in the states and with many questions regarding the Negro. Official policy had to be established concerning the employment of Negroes as soldiers, and the treatment of the numerous slaves who fled to Union lines, or attached themselves to Union armies. Both of these matters were highly explosive, for the administration's decision might well alienate sorely needed Border State support. The ultimate decision for emancipation constituted a significant step forward in the drive for freedom and democracy which was making significant advances throughout much of the Western World at mid-century.

In the decade following the Civil War, Americans sought a program and a pattern for reunion which would secure the basic results of the War - national supremacy and human freedom. Conflicting interests and partisan views on these matters made the task a difficult one.

Throughout the period 1820-1877; the Negro's desire for freedom and equality produced Negroes of statue, and resulted in contributions or achievements by Negroes which strengthened the democratic way of life.

Territorial Expansion and the Negro

Territorial expansion and the Westward Movement dominate much of American History during the four decades following the end of the war with Britain in 1815. During these years, the nation acquired territory from Mexico, and also substantiated controversial claims to the Oregon country. Migrating residents from the eastern seaboard states continued to pour into the Old Northwest and the Old Southwest, and settlements were established in portions of the purchased Louisiana Territory.

The large numbers of persons who moved westward after 1820 caused an English observer, Morris Birkbeck, to conclude that "old America seems to be breaking up and moving westward." There is evidence that Negroes were also a part of this movement westward. Many eastern slaveholders, of course, carried their slaves with them into the rich lands of the lower Mississippi Valley and helped to expand the "cotton country." Many Negroes, however, left the South and went West in search of freedom and economic security. On the frontier, they worked as miners, carpenters, ranchers, and barbers. One of the most outstanding of the Negro migrants to the West was George Bush, who in the employ of the Hudson Bay Company, reached the Pacific Coast north of the Columbia River as early as 1820. The record reveals that he returned to Missouri in 1830, married, and in 1842 - took his family and four other persons over the Oregon Trail to the Oregon country. He is said to have established the first saw and grist mill on Puget Sound. Bush helped many later American settlers in Oregon by giving them food and supplies to help them until they were established. The settlement succeeded, and it was partially on the basis of this "occupation" that the United States based its claim to land south of the forty-ninth parallel.

The largest and most significant migration of Negroes to the Northwest occurred when four hundred Negro families fled as a result of California's Fugitive Slave Act of 1852. This group followed George Washington, an early Negro pioneer, who had settled in what is now Centralia, Washington. An even more stringent fugitive slave law, enacted six years later, resulted in the emigration of many Negroes to the British colony at Vancouver. By 1864, fifty-five Negroes had applied for British citizenship. One of these, Miffin W. Gibbs, was elected to the Common Council of Vancouver in 1866. Gibbs later studied law at Oberlin College, and practiced law in Little Rock, Arkansas, where he ultimately became a municipal judge.

One of the most famous scouts in the western country was a free Negro named James Beckworth. His knowledge of the country from Missouri to the coast, and his ability to speak three Indian dialects made him a valuable scout and a guerrilla fighter against the Indians. Beckworth Pass in the Rocky Mountains is named for him.

Negro women, as well as Negro men, played a part in the westward movement. Clara Brown, for example, established a laundry in California and used the profits of her business to finance Negro refugees who wanted to come to the West. A Negro business woman in Kansas, known as "Ma Pleasant," is said to have come East to give John Brown $30,000 for use in his "liberation movement." A letter from her was found among Brown's possessions when he was captured at Harper's Ferry.

Thus, in the period of early western development, it can be seen that Negroes contributed to the development of this great section in many ways: with pick and shovel, with plow and ax, in trades and industries, and as scouts and mountain men.

The movement of large numbers of people into the western territories had two significant results. The extension of settlement into the new west created a new section, which was both democratic and crude; and which rejected many of the attitudes and customs of the planter South, and the industrial North. Long before 1860, the West came to constitute a "balance of power" between the two older sections. As the population in the west increased, territorial organization preparatory to admission of the area to the Union as a state and admission to statehood became issues which directly involved the Negro. At a time when slave and free states were equal in number, the request of a territory for admission under a constitution sanctioning slavery created a political crisis. The movement of settlers into the territory acquired from Mexico in 1848 also raised the question of the status of slavery in the territories of the United States, and the extent to which the institution of slavery might be restricted in such areas by the Federal Government.

Negro-Indian Relations Prior to 1860

Although much of the conflict between Indians and whites during the first half of the nineteenth century resulted from the desire of the whites to eliminate tribal land titles and open Indian lands for white settlement, relations between Indians and Negroes were also an important source of friction and conflict. From 1800 to 1837 especially, settlers in Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina were disturbed by the friendly relations between Indians and Negroes which presented a menace to the institution of slavery.

For many years prior to 1816, large numbers of slaves escaped from plantations in Georgia and South Carolina and found their way southward to friendly Indian communities. Both the Creeks and the Seminoles welcomed runaway slaves, who sometimes were admitted into tribal membership, or permitted to live peacefully among them. In 1832, an official from the Indian Commission found some free Negro families so closely identified with the Creeks that he raised the question whether or not they should be granted lands under terms of the Creek Treaty. It was determined that those admitted to the Creek Nation and recognized as such by the tribe, were entitled to reservation lands.

Slave owners considered the existence of small colonies of runaway Negroes and Negro exiles among the Seminoles in Spanish Florida a danger to slavery, for they feared slaves would be encouraged to escape to live among them. One significant factor in the clamor for the annexation of Florida was the desire of southerners to obtain jurisdiction over the area to remove this danger, and re-enslave runaway slaves. Friction was sometimes generated when slave catchers captured and enslaved persons, Negroes or mixed-breeds, who were members of Indian tribes.

Cumulative conflict over recapture and payment by Indians for runaway slaves played a considerable part in bringing about the First and Second

Seminole Wars in 1816 and 1836, respectively. Defeat of the Seminoles by 1840 resulted in their "removal" farther west, but they were permitted to take Negro tribal members, and Negroes who were their slaves.

Anti-Slavery and Abolition Movements

The anti-slavery movement of the period 1830-1860 was not an isolated movement. It was in reality a part of a broader movement of social and humanitarian reform which engaged the American people in the three decades preceding the Civil War. From one point of view, the movement which was apparent by 1830 might well be considered a revival of the abolition movement which had first appeared in the Post-Revolutionary Period, but had been suppressed by the Conservative Reaction which accompanied the launching of the "federal experiment."

While many liberal sympathizers of the North and West supported abolition and contributed a great deal of financial aid and direction, the movement was also a self-help movement as far as the Negro was concerned. There is a long record of participation and contribution both by Negro organizations and by individual Negroes. One of the first organizations to campaign against slavery was the American Society of Free Persons of Color, an outgrowth of the National Negro Convention of 1830. The Society worked in the movement until 1860. A Negro convention held in Rochester, New York, in 1853 considered the general theme of Negro freedom and Negro rights. Among those in attendance were some of the most outstanding Negroes of the day: Martin R. Delaney, Henry Highland Garnett, William H. Day, and Frederick Douglass. Speeches which they delivered made headlines in the Northern press, and evoked a wave of sympathy and understanding for the abolitionist cause. It is estimated that by 1830, approximately fifty anti-slavery societies organized by Negroes were in existence.

There is much evidence of wide participation by Negroes in the larger national and regional anti-slavery organizations along with white abolitionists. Negroes of distinction, such as, Robert Purvis, Samuel Cornish, James W. S. Pennington, participated in the organization of the American Anti-Slavery Society and the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society. Others served as agents and speakers, and traveled the country speaking for freedom and demonstrating by example from the platform what Negroes might accomplish if given freedom and opportunity. Sojourner Truth was especially effective as a speaker, as were Charles Lennox Remond, Lunceford Lane, and Henry Highland Garnett.

Of the many Negroes who worked for the cause of abolition, none were more outstanding than Frederick Douglass, John B. Russwurm, Samuel Cornish, and Harriet Tubman.

Frederick Douglass, an escaped slave from Maryland, was an orator, a publisher, and an abolitionist agent. He was perhaps the most famous and widely known Negro of the period. He was an incessant traveler, and a tireless speaker both in the United States and abroad in the interest of his race. In 1847, he founded the North Star, a newspaper which carried his message of freedom to the people. Because of his ability and devotion, Douglass came to be recognized as the unchallenged leader of his people during most of the late 19th century. Much of his later life was spent in

Anacostia, D. C. where he acquired a modest home, which was recently purchased by the Federal Government as a national shrine.

Samuel Cornish and John B. Russwurm an alumnus of Bowdoin College, contributed to many aspects of the abolition movement, but it was primarily through the Negro press that they made their most significant contributions. In 1827, they founded Freedom's Journal, which is said to be the first Negro newspaper published in the United States. Later, Cornish founded two other newspapers, both of which were short-lived. Cornish and Russwurm used the press to solicit the support of other free Negroes.

Whereas Douglass, Cornish, and Russwurm made their chief contributions from the platform or through the press, Harriet Tubman worked on "freedom's battle line". She was, without doubt, the most successful of all Negro conductors of the Underground Railroad. An illiterate, escaped slave, Harriet Tubman is credited with nineteen forays into the South, and is said to have been responsible for the escape of more than 300 slaves, many of whom she personally conducted to Canada.

Negro abolitionists were aided and supported by many white benefactors in the North and West. In addition to William Lloyd Garrison, the anathema of the southern planter and the most famous abolitionist, there were prominent men such as the wealthy Tappan brothers of New York City, Theodore Dwight Weld, and James Birney who played major roles. An inestimable contribution to the Anti-Slavery Movement was made by Harriet Beecher Stowe, whose Uncle Tom's Cabin awakened millions of readers in the United States and abroad to the inhumanity and evil of the institution of slavery.

During the period 1830-1860, Negro reaction against slavery took the form of slave revolts, as well as appeals from the platform and through the press. The Nat Turner Insurrection in Virginia in 1831 is such an example. Whether inspired by the forceful essay of David Walker, a free Negro clothier who appealed to slaves to rise up in revolt against their masters, or by the publication of the first issue of Garrison's Liberator earlier in 1831; the Nat Turner Insurrection revived southern fears of a general slave revolt. Mutinies by Negro slaves aboard slave ships in the coastwise voyage from slave depots in the Upper South to slave markets in the Lower South were not infrequent. Slave revolts on the Amistad and the Creole, two ships in the coastwise domestic slave trade are examples of such revolts.

Southern reaction to the anti-slavery crusade and insurrectionary tendencies of the time was an effort to tighten controls over "the institution" by enactment of more stringent controls over slaves and free Negroes, and to prevent the circulation of abolitionist propaganda within the section. There followed more intensive efforts to enforce legislation against teaching slaves to read and to prevent the entrance into the states of free Negroes. The success of the Underground Railroad in carrying slaves to freedom in the North and in Canada, led to a demand by the South for a stronger fugitive slave law. The resultant Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 tended to stimulate rather than to diminish slave escapes, for its harshness evoked the sympathy and aid of persons who had opposed slavery but until this time had given little overt support to the emancipation movement. Escaping slaves are said to have received aid and concealment at Brook Farm, the famous Transcendentalist community in Massachusetts.

Social and Economic Status of Negroes, 1820-1860

Contrary to the belief of many Americans, all Negroes in the United States were not slaves prior to 1863. Quite the contrary is true, for there had always been a free Negro group in the American population. The number of free Negroes in the United States, listed at 59,000 by the census of 1790, increased to 319,000 in 1830 and to 488,000 in 1860. Approximately, 45 per cent of the free Negro population lived in the southern states. Free Negroes tended to concentrate in cities such as: Baltimore; New York; Philadelphia; Charleston, South Carolina; New Orleans; and Mobile because of the social and economic opportunities which such areas provided. Negroes obtained the free status in different ways. Some were born free; some were able to accumulate enough money to purchase freedom for themselves and sometimes for their families; others gained their freedom through manumission by sympathetic and conscionable owners. After 1830, manumission was made difficult by the enactment of legislative barriers designed to limit the free Negro population in the South.

The economic status of free Negroes varied considerably. Many prospered and accumulated considerable wealth in real and personal property. For example, in 1859 free Negroes in Charleston, South Carolina, paid taxes on $778,000 worth of property; in Cincinnati, they owned property valued at $500,000; and in New Orleans, their property was valued at $15,000,000. A report of the National Convention of Colored Americans which met in Philadelphia in 1856 estimated that Negroes in New England had more than two million dollars invested in business. In Washington, D.C., James Wormley was perhaps the most prosperous free Negro with much money invested in real estate, and with income from the Wormley Hotel, a favorite for statesmen and congressmen, and a nearby drug store.

While there are numerous illustrations of affluent free Negroes during the period, the larger number were not so prosperous. For the most part, they faced many types of economic hardship and restriction. In the South, they were confronted with opposition from competing white workers, and were hampered by legislation which restricted the occupations in which they could engage and their mobility. Despite such limitations, free Negroes in Charleston, South Carolina, worked at fifty different occupations, many requiring considerable skill. They were employed as carpenters, brickmasons, cabinet makers, ship's pilots, and in many other trades. In most cities, there were small groups of professional men; such as, dentists, architects, jewelers, artists, and lawyers. Robert Norris, a Boston attorney, presided over the Magistrate's Court for a brief period; and in 1852, brought suit against segregation in the public schools of Boston. The decision in the case, Roberts vs. City of Boston, was cited as a precedent for Plessy vs. Ferguson, which established the "separate but equal" doctrine in constitutional law.

Competition between free Negroes and immigrants was especially intense in eastern cities. Both groups were largely unskilled and marginal workers dependent upon the same types of jobs. Sometimes Negro workers organized unions in an effort to forestall exclusion from jobs. The American League of Colored Workers and the American Seamen's Protective Union Association organized for that purpose in 1850 and 1863, respectively. To help Negro workers meet competition in the skilled trades, abolition societies and churches established manual training school to teach them. Such institutions were established in Newport, Indiana, Syracuse, New York, and in southern Ohio.

THE CIVIL WAR

Introduction

The pressure of events involving slavery during the fifties, which widened the breach between the sections, and the Republican victory in 1860, interpreted as a menace to southern rights, set in motion a stream of events which led to war. The war itself was the second step in America's march toward the goal of human freedom, which was begun in 1787. After the Proclamation of 1863, and the Thirteenth Amendment in 1865; America was, for the first time, fully committed to the doctrine of freedom and equality.

Some historians have emphasized the establishment of national supremacy over states rights as the most important result of the Civil War, others have emphasized the rise of industrialism and the development of the Industrial State. Though not a goal in the early years of the war, the abolition of slavery with its implicit recognition of human liberty and human dignity was an equally important result.

Negroes participated in the Civil War as in each of the earlier conflicts in which the nation had engaged. They contributed on the battle front as well as behind the lines. The scholarly work of Benjamin Quarles, The Negro in the Civil War, represents a refutation of the assertion sometimes made that the Negro was given his freedom. It clearly demonstrates that the Negro's role in the Civil War was an active one and that "to him freedom was a two-way street; indeed he gave prior to receiving."

The Negro Soldier in the Union Army

During the first two years of the Civil War, the most persistent problem which confronted the War Department was that of raising sufficient manpower to keep the armies filled. The great enthusiasm which had characterized the initial response to the President's call for volunteers disappeared as the War lengthened into years rather than months. Northern war governors frequently complained of discriminatory treatment in the assignment of state militia quotas, which they had great difficulty filling. The Lincoln administration, though continuously prodded by Governor John A. Andrew of Massachusetts, refused to accept Negro volunteers. The administration had emphasized during the early months of the war that its war aims were limited to maintaining the Union and the Constitution. It was feared that the employment of Negro troops would inject into the conflict the issue of slavery, which the administration wished to avoid. There were many persons, however, who wanted to reject Negro soldiers because of their conviction that Negroes were too ignorant and too dependent to make a good soldier.

From the moment Fort Sumter was fired upon, Negroes made efforts to participate directly in the conflict. In many northern cities during

April and May 1861, Negro leaders initiated movements to raise Negro volunteers for the Army. In Boston, New York City, Providence, and Philadelphia, Negroes were urged by leaders such as Robert Purvis, John M. Langston, and Frederick Douglass to form volunteer companies and offer their services. All proffers by Negroes were rejected by the state and federal governments, for at the time, boundless confidence indicated a short war which could be completed successfully without the use of Negro troops. The rejection of Negro volunteers as soldiers during the first year and a half of the war prevented Negro participation except as laborers, cooks, butlers, and teamsters.

The administration's policy with regard to the use of Negro troops during 1861-1862 was a vacillating one. Despite the official policy on this matter, some Union generals such as David Hunter, John Lane, and John W. Phelps recruited Negro regiments without specific authority. They were convinced that the large number of Negro fugitives and contraband slaves could be effectively organized and trained. General Hunter, in command of the Department of the South, recruited a Negro regiment at Hilton Head, South Carolina, in April 1862, an action which he justified on the basis of instructions, which contained no racial restrictions, issued to his predecessor, General Sherman. General John Lane took similar action in Kansas. In both instances, however, the experiment had to be abandoned when the War Department refused to accept these units.

General Butler rejected General Phelp's plan to recruit fugitives, but recruited a regiment of free Negroes in September 1862, when he was unable to obtain re-enforcements from Washington. This unit, the First Regiment of New Orleans Native Guards, represented the first Negro soldiers mustered into the United States Army as a unit in the Civil War. Soon thereafter, the War Department altered its policy and authorized General Saxton in command in South Carolina to recruit up to 5,000 "volunteers of African descent." Now the anomalous situation existed in which the administration appeared willing to recruit and utilize southern Negroes (fugitives and contraband) for military purposes, but made no effort to recruit and utilize the services of northern Negroes.

By the opening of 1863 after the Emancipation Proclamation had been issued, the national government was more amenable to the idea of enlisting Negro troops. Acting under the spur of the northern war governors, who found it increasingly difficult to fill state quotas, the Secretary of War authorized Governor John A. Andrew to enlist Negro volunteers. He recruited the Fifty-Fourth Massachusetts Regiment. This success was duplicated by other advocates of Negro troops in Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and after considerable delay and opposition by Governor Horatio Seymour, in New York as well. Most of the other northern states recruited at least one regiment of Negro volunteers each.

When the Provost Marshall terminated the recruitment of Negroes in April 1865, approximately 180,000 had been enlisted in the United States Army; another 30,000 served in the Navy as crewmen on forty-nine Union vessels. These men sometimes faced unusual difficulties such as unequal pay, inferior arms and equipment, inferior medical and hospital care. Few opportunities existed for Negroes to obtain commissions, for it is estimated that no more than one hundred commissions were given to Negroes. One of these went to Major Alexander T. Augusta, a physician and ranking

Negro in the Army. Contrary to the belief of many, Negroes who were mustered into the Army did not "crack up," but were cited for bravery under fire in a large number of campaigns such as those at Port Hudson and Fort Wagner. President Lincoln asserted in August 1863, that it was the military opinion of some army commanders that some Union successes would not have been achieved but for the aid of Negro soldiers.

The two aspects of the Negro problem, arming the Negro and freeing the slave, perhaps brought the President more criticism, and made a more difficult job for the President than any other single issue. Some persons contend that Lincoln's attitude toward the Negro, slave and free, was misunderstood both in the North and in the South. He was undoubtedly opposed to slavery which he considered wrong and expressed his views on the subject on more than one occasion. But, he could not be brought to denounce the whole class of slave owners as some would have had him do. Moreover, his easy and gracious association with specific Negroes indicate his lack of concern over such an issue as social equality. Lincoln frequently invited and met with Negro leaders and groups at the White House; among these were Harriet Tubman, the abolitionist, and Frederick Douglass whose opinions he sometimes sought with regard to projected policies involving the Negro.

As a practical politician, however, President Lincoln realized that an abolitionist orientation for the administration would probably cost him the support of the Ohio Valley and the Border States, where the institution was still firmly entrenched. Considerations of expediency caused Lincoln to initiate a government-sponsored program of compensated emancipation as a measure which might gain the support of the abolitionists without losing the support of the Border States. With assurance that the influential Senator Sumner of Massachusetts would not oppose it, Lincoln submitted the measure to Congress which enacted it into law April 10, 1862. Two days later, the District of Columbia Emancipation Act was passed authorizing the Federal Government to compensate each owner up to $300 for each slave emancipated. The Border States refused to follow the President's lead with regard to compensated emancipation.

By July 1862, President Lincoln had come to the conclusion that Negroes should be armed and slaves emancipated as a military measure. Much to the satisfaction of abolitionists, on September 22, 1862, he took the step which they had urged upon him since the opening of hostilities and indicated his intention of declaring free on January 1, 1863, slaves of all persons in rebellion against the Union.

The Negro in the North During Wartime

The war years were difficult years for Negroes in the North no less than for those in the South. In the South, free Negroes faced tighter controls and the same dangers and privations of war as the slaves. In the North, Negroes faced the hostility of white workers. As the war continued beyond the first year, some whites became disgruntled over the increased financial burdens and privations which the war placed upon them. They looked upon the Negro as the cause of the war, and of their discomfort. They also feared that if the administration ever established an emancipation policy, there would be a large influx of freedmen to the North with resultant competition for jobs. Events of the years after 1863 proved these fears unfounded, for most freedmen tended to remain in the southern states among familiar surroundings.

By 1863, the antagonism of white workers toward the Negro worker was apparent in many eastern cities, especially in New York, where they feared job competition and the use of Negro workers as strike-breakers. Prior to the Civil War, a racial transition had taken place in unskilled and domestic employment in many northern cities with white immigrants displacing Negro workers who had monopolized such jobs.

The accumulated discontent in New York City resulted in a riot on July 13, 1863. White workers, already discontended, were provoked to action by the Draft Act of 1863. Rioting lasted four days during which time employers with Negro workers were visited and their property usually destroyed. Negroes and their friends were mobbed, beaten and sometimes killed, and their property burned. This situation in New York was the most extreme antagonism against the Negro in any area of the North, but it well illustrates the reaction of the working class to the Negro and the Negro problem as well as the breach between white and Negro labor which employers used to such good advantage during the subsequent labor movement.

The Negro in the Confederacy

The opening of the Civil War caused southern states great concern over the matter of controlling their Negro populations. Southern whites, already fearful of a general slave uprising, reasoned that the war would present such an opportunity. To prevent such a development, efforts were made to exercise increased and more effective control over slaves and free Negroes. State enactments affecting free Negroes generally imposed tighter restrictions on mobility, employment, and the carrying of weapons. In an effort to reduce the number of free Negroes in the state, restrictions were placed upon the entrance of free Negroes from other states; and in some instances, those already there were required to accept voluntary enslavement as a condition for remaining in the state. Enactments of this nature were most frequent in states with large Negro populations.

Despite policies of restriction and control, most southern states impressed and utilized the services of free Negroes as well as slaves. In some cases, free Negroes volunteered their service to the state, thus reflecting the state loyalty and attachment to the locality which was characteristic of most people during the period. At least six states impressed free Negroes, with compensation, during the Civil War.

Both the Confederacy and state governments adopted a policy of impressing slave labor for military purposes. Such impressments were always a source of conflict and controversy between slave owners and the government, for slave impressments sometimes resulted in injury to slave property, loss through escape or capture, or at least deprived the owners of labor at an inopportune time. Impressed slave labor was used in the salt mines, in the transportation of supplies, and in building fortifications. During the winter of 1864-1865, when it became impossible to keep the Confederate armies filled with white soldiers, the Confederacy finally enacted a Negro soldier bill which promised freedom to slaves after military service. This measure came so late that even though some Negro soldiers were enrolled, there is no evidence that any actually participated in any military campaign.

REUNION

Introduction

The end of hostilities in 1865 left the nation with many fundamental problems to solve, for almost every area of American life had been severely altered, or affected by the war experience. Most important of these problems were those affecting the political reconstruction of the South and the provision for the freedmen. These two problems were so closely related to larger political and economic matters that Reconstruction soon revealed itself to be a broad national problem with a significance far deeper than that of race or sections. Decisions in either of these two area would do much to effect and determine the course and direction of national, political and economic development in succeeding decades.

The Reconstruction Period was a period of controversy, as one might expect. There was controversy over terms and conditions for the readmission of southern states to the Union, controversy over the place and role of the Negro in the life of the South, and there was controversy over the extent of federal authority in "reconstructed" states. Conflict and suspicions with regard to these matters sometimes resulted in inflamed passions, partisanship, and ill-advised action. It was this aspect of Reconstruction, conflict and upheaval, which has resulted in the traditional interpretation that this was a period of setback, of destruction of Southern institutions and values; largely, because of the role played by the Negro and his supporters. It is encouraging that during the past two decades, a group of American history scholars (Francis B. Simpkins, Howard K. Beale, and John Hope Franklin) among others have attempted to set the record straight.

The Drive For Negro Suffrage

The Emancipation Proclamation and the Thirteenth Amendment, which was ratified by December 1865, guaranteed personal freedom for more than three and a half million Negro slaves, thereby satisfying one of the basic demands of abolitionism. But there remained the unfinished task of providing constitutional recognition of Negro citizenship and extending the suffrage to the freedmen.

Neither President Lincoln nor his successor, Andrew Johnson, favored a general grant of the franchise to Negroes. In response to the petition for the ballot from New Orleans Negroes in 1864, Lincoln suggested that the franchise might be conferred upon "very intelligent Negroes" and upon those "who had served our cause as soldiers". With education, he believed many Negroes could qualify for, at least, a restricted type of citizenship. President Johnson, following essentially the reconstruction policies of his predecessor, established provisional governments, and organized states for admission to the Union without provisions for Negro suffrage.

By the summer of 1866, abolitionists and many Republican members of Congress had come to the belief that the extension of the suffrage to Negroes was essential to safeguard their freedom. One reason for this conviction was the action of several southern states in enacting legislation to control the freedmen. Many southerners accepted the Thirteenth Amendment, but believed that the social revolution which emancipation had brought to the

South could be directed and controlled by special legislation. Such legislation would help Negroes to "adjust" to a free society. Unfortunately, such legislation as was enacted, and such "adjustment" as was contemplated, imposed such restriction and unequal treatment upon freedmen that his position would have been much less than that of a free man.

Radical Republicans, fearful of a South dominated by Democrats, insisted upon Negro suffrage as a condition for readmission of southern states to the Union; Negro suffrage would help preserve Republican supremacy. Victorious over Johnson in a political duel, radical Republicans were able to incorporate their demands into the Constitution.

Rehabilitation and Economic Adjustment

The need for rehabilitation and economic adjustment for the freedmen was obvious shortly after the first year of the War. Early Union victories in the Sea Islands of South Carolina, and in Louisiana resulted in a large number of contrabands in dire need of the basic means of survival. They badly needed food, clothing, medicine, and above all, educational and moral guidance. Largely through the efforts of Union army commanders, knowledge of the freedmen's plight was communicated to northern philanthropic groups, which organized associations to help meet these needs. Money and clothing collected by Negro aid and relief societies in many northern cities were sent south to help the freedmen. But more important, some organizations such as the American Missionary Association sent missionaries and teachers who established schools and worked among the freedmen to help them adjust to their new way of life. Such humanitarian efforts, though intended for freedmen, were extended to needy poor whites as well. Negroes, too, were donors, for they also established relief and aid societies, and sent aid to the freedmen.

By far the most significant educational effort during this period in behalf of freedmen was made by the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, popularly known as the Freedmen's Bureau. During the seven years of its existence, it spent approximately $5,000,000 establishing schools and supplementing the educational efforts of organizations already in the field. By 1870, there were more than 247,000 pupils in its 4;329 schools. The Bureau co-operated with northern philanthropic and religious groups in establishing Howard University, Atlanta University, Fisk University, and several other educational institutions, many of which have exerted tremendous influence upon the lives of Negro Americans.

In addition to its educational work, the Freedmen's Bureau served an essential function in helping the freedmen make a necessary economic adjustment. Freedmen needed economic guidance and a great deal of supervision in their economic relationships with whites in the post-war period. The Bureau supervised labor contracts between Negro workers and white employers in an effort to prevent exploitation of the worker on the one hand, and the failure of the worker to meet his contractual obligations on the other. Charges of political partisanship, corruption, and mismanagement were sometimes levied against the Bureau, which did its work in a hostile community under hostile conditions; and no doubt, there was some substance to these charges. However, it is hard to imagine what the plight of the freedmen would have been without the aid of this federal relief agency.

The Negro in the Political Reconstruction of the South

From any point of view, southern political reconstruction was a process which revealed much conflict, upheaval, and inflamed passions. Beginning with the basic aim of providing a new political order for the one which collapsed with the defeat of the Confederacy, it completely reconstituted the political order, casting aside many long-cherished southern political ideas and practices.

To most southerners, the most revolutionary and upsetting aspect of the entire process was the participation of Negroes, many of whom were former slaves and considered incapable of functioning as citizens and as voters. More alarming was the fact that Radical Republicans who had extended the suffrage to the Negro, began to take steps to insure that he would not be denied its exercise. Thus, beginning in 1868, all southern constitutional conventions and legislatures elected under them contained Negro members for the first time. The number varied from state to state with a "high" in South Carolina, and a "low" in Virginia where Negroes exercised but small influence in state politics.

Southern governments reflected the evils of American state governments of the period sometimes called "the dark ages" of state and municipal government. There was evidence of incompetence, corruption, extravagance, bossism; there was inefficiency and incompetence due to the inexperience of freedmen and poor whites participating in government for the first time. Unfortunately, such defects as were revealed were attributed to the fact that they were "black governments" and under the domination of Negroes. Despite charges of domination by Negro leadership, the record indicates that nowhere was this really true. Even in South Carolina where Negroes were most influential and elected the largest number of Negroes to the legislature and state offices, they never dominated the state. At no time did they control either the state senate, or the executive, both of which served to check Negro leadership in the lower chamber.

In most other states with smaller Negro populations and consequently less influence, Negro leadership exerted decidedly less than a dominating influence upon state politics.

Negro officeholders served in many capacities between 1868-1890. They were state legislators, lieutenant-governors in three states, secretaries of state, justices of state supreme courts, sheriffs, recorders of deeds, and superintendents of education. Twenty-two Negroes served in the Congress of the United States between 1868-1901, two of whom, Hiram R. Revels and Blanche K. Bruce were United States Senators. All Negro officeholders were neither ex-slaves, nor academically unprepared for their job. Some were free Negroes of good background and education as was Francis L. Cardozo, Secretary of State of South Carolina in 1868, who was educated at the University of Glasgow in London.

Thus, southern reconstruction reveals many defects, but there is also a credit side. It should be noted that state constitutions and legislation of this period gave the South the most democratic governments that they had ever experienced. The abolition of slavery, and of property qualification for voting and office holding enfranchised both freedmen and poor whites.

A universal system of free, public education was established, while efforts were made to reform city governments and the system of representation. Moreover, southern states were brought to assume social welfare functions which the ante-bellum South had neglected. One measure of the value of Reconstruction constitutions is the fact that after "redemption," many of their provisions were retained in constitutions rewritten a generation later.

UNIT IV: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Apetheker, Herbert. Negro Slave Revolts in the United States 1526-1860. New York: Citadel. 1939.

Apetheker, Herbert. Documentary History of the Negro People in the United States. New York: Citadel. 1951.

Beasley, Delilah L. Negro Trail Blazers of California. California: 1919.

Cole, Arthur C. The Irrepressible Conflict--1850-1865. New York: McMillan Co. 1934.

Eppse, Merl R. The Negro Too in American History. Nashville: National Pub. Co. 1943.

Foster, A. P. An Elementary History of the Contributions of the American Negro. New York and Nashville: National Pub. Co. 1939.

Foster, William Z. The Negro People in American History. New York: International Publishers. 1954.

Garrison, William L. The Story of His Life. New York: Century. 1889.

Greely, Horace. The American Conflict. Hartford: O. D. Case. 1866.

Ingle, Edward. The Negro in the District of Columbia. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Johns Hopkins Press. Mr. & Ap. 1893.

Macy, John. The Anti-Slavery Crusade. New Haven: Yale Press. 1919.

Riddle, Albert Gallatil. Recollections of War Times. 1860-65. New York: Putman. 1895.

Stephens, Alexander. A Constitutional View of the War Between the States. Chicago: National Pub. Co. 1868. vl.

Wesley, Charles H. Negro Labor in the United States. New York: Vanguard. 1927.

PERIODICALS:

Boston Post. December, 1859.

Baltimore Sun. January 2, 1860.

The Commonwealth. Boston. October 4, 1862. Vol. 1, No. 5.

New York Ledger. June, 1863.

New York Daily Tribune. July 7, 1863.

National Anti-Slavery Standard. August 2, 1863.

Harper's New Monthly. New York. 1865. Vol. 5.

Harper's Weekly. 1865.

The Military Surgeon. January and February, 1928.

Howard University Studies: Williams, William H. The Negro in the District of Columbia During Reconstruction. June, 1924. No. 5.

Negro History Bulletin. June, 1942. Vol. 5, No. 9.

The Iliff: Hill, Daniel. The Negro in the Early History of the West. Vol. 3, No. 3. Fall, 1946.

UNIT V. THE ACCELERATION OF INDUSTRIALISM

1860-1920

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK- NOT FILMED

UNIT V: THE ACCELERATION OF INDUSTRIALISM, 1860-1920

Introduction

The rapid growth of industry in the United States during the late 19th century was one of the most important forces in the shaping of modern America. Although European immigrants provided the major source of manpower until the beginning of World War I, Negro workers supplied some of the needed manpower. The opportunity afforded by World War I represented a significant step in the creation of a Negro industrial worker class whose presence organized labor was forced to recognize. A relatively large number of Negro inventors also contributed to the industrial movement during the period.

To provide goods and services for an increasingly large number of Negroes in urban and adjacent rural areas, there emerged a fairly well-defined class of small Negro businessmen. In northern and southern cities, Negroes established businesses based largely on the skills which they had acquired in personal service occupations. They became barbers, liverymen, tailors, grocers, and restaurateurs. In the late 19th century, Negro banking enterprises developed. By 1900, there were enough successful Negro business enterprises to warrant the organization of a national association of Negro businessmen, the National Negro Business League.

Industrial Expansion and the Negro

During the early decades of industrial growth, the Negro was neither involved nor affected to the extent of other Americans, primarily because the areas of greatest industrialization were areas with relatively small Negro populations. Before World War I, the majority of Negroes were concentrated in agrarian areas of the South where they were outside of the orbit of greatest industrial influence. The demand for an increased supply of cheap labor for rapid industrial growth and expansion was met by European immigration which reached one million in a single year in 1909. Negroes failed to gain employment in large numbers in any American industry before 1914, when World War I shut off the European labor supply, so that industrialists were forced to turn to the largely unutilized Negro labor force. Northern industrialists employed many effective techniques to lure potential Negro workers from the South and set in motion a Negro migration northward which continued into the "twenties." The results were twofold: the labor shortage created by declining immigration was met, and the urbanization of the Negro population was begun.

While industrial employment of Negroes before 1920 varied from industry to industry and from section to section, careful examination indicates that in most industries a racial occupational pattern which rigidly restricted the areas and types of employment for Negroes had evolved. Skilled jobs were generally closed to Negroes either as a result of long-standing custom in a particular industry, or as a result of effective union pressures. These occupational patterns have persisted in many industries to the present time.

From 1865 to 1900, the largest number of skilled Negro workers were employed in the building trades as they had been during the ante-bellum period. Negro mechanics were seldom employed in northern cities and found themselves gradually displaced by whites in the South. The declining position of the Negro mechanic was clearly revealed by the first Federal Census of Occupations in 1890 which showed that a tremendous decline had occurred during the preceding thirty years.

In the last three decades of the nineteenth century when the growth and expansion of the railroad industry created a heavy demand for large numbers of workers, there was no significant increase in employment opportunities for Negroes, except in the South. There, Negroes were sometimes employed in the operating departments of southern railroads. The customary practice, however, of promoting firemen and trainmen to positions as conductors and engineers did not apply to Negro firemen and trainmen who were frequently given less pay than white workers for the same job. Negro workers were also used to the advantage of southern railroad managers to depress wages and to fight unionism. The great majority of Negro workers were employed as track laborers. In the North and West, these jobs were generally filled by immigrant laborers, so that the number of Negroes in the railroad industry before 1914 was small.

The late nineteenth century growth of the iron and steel industry upon which the railroad and other industries depended did little to provide significant job opportunities for Negroes. The demand for cheap labor was met by immigrant labor rather than by Negro labor. Before 1914, there were only a few Negroes in northern iron and steel mills, and they had come in largely through the strikebreaking route. After the beginning of World War I, however, northern steel mills recruited southern Negroes to meet the increased demand for labor. Many Negro steel workers in the South were concentrated in the Birmingham, Alabama area. As in other industries, a racial occupational pattern evolved with the result that Negroes were invariably assigned work at the blast furnaces or coke ovens.

In the rapidly expanding mining industry, there was a relatively narrow range of occupations and few jobs requiring more than nominal skill. Nearly fifty per cent of the workers were classified as hand coal loaders. They included Negro and white workers who worked side by side with little apparent friction. In mining, there was no evidence of wage differential based on race; most workers worked either on a "piece rate" or a daily wage basis regardless of race.

Negro employment in the closely related textile and clothing industries reveal widely contrasting patterns and practices. In the cotton textile mills, few Negroes were employed in the North or South. In northern mills, immigrant workers and their descendants were firmly entrenched. In southern mills, poverty-strickened whites in need of jobs and rehabilitation were given job preference. The few jobs available to Negroes were the menial or heavy-duty jobs which came to be termed "Negro jobs" which neither the Irish nor poor southern whites would take. In the clothing industry, however, an opposite trend prevailed. Though Negro workers were late arrivals in the industry, they were welcomed rather than excluded, and were generally treated more fairly than in any other major industry examined. The number of Negroes in the clothing industry increased greatly during World War I when manufacturers, particularly in Chicago, Philadelphia, and New York recruited Negro workers.

The Negro and Organized Labor

American industrial expansion during the post-Civil War Period not only drastically altered the forms of industrial organization and methods of production, but also greatly altered the relationship between employer and employee. New conditions of employment and convictions of exploitation at the hands of management resulted in the organization of wage earners into national labor unions to combat the conditions which made them increasingly dependent upon the machine and the job. By the end of the period under discussion, organized labor was a significant force in American economic life. But labor's potential power was never fully realized during the period partially because the "Negro question" was injected into labor unionism, as it had been in political matters, creating divisive influences which undermined the solidarity which is so essential to a strong labor movement. Labor never seemed to recognize the fact that wage earners, white and colored, faced common problems, faced a common enemy in management, and required a united front to resolve their problems.

The history of organized labor and the Negro prior to 1920 indicates patterns of rejection and discrimination so often observed in other areas of American life. Labor solidarity irrespective of race was the ideal of the Knights of Labor, and the American Federation of Labor. Whereas, the Knights of Labor freely accepted Negro workers to membership and full participation, the American Federation of Labor soon after its organization, receded from its expressed policy of racial equality because this policy appeared to be a barrier to expansion. After 1895, it condoned the policy of exclusion of Negroes from national unions by admitting a national union which excluded Negroes from membership. Four years later, it adopted the explicit policy of organizing Negroes into separate unions when they were denied membership in affiliated national unions.

Discrimination and restricted employment led many Negro workers to leave the railroad industry for more remunerative employment during World War I. Director-General William G. McAdoo of the Railroad Administration, which had taken over operation of the railroads during the war, was alarmed at this loss of necessary skilled labor during a period of national emergency. In an effort to retain Negro workers, he issued an order that beginning June 1, 1918, Negroes employed as firemen or trainmen would receive the same rates as whites in the same jobs. Generally, the development of collective bargaining in the railroad industry has had a disastrous effect on the Negro worker, for under it, he has suffered injustices from both management and labor unions. It seems significant that of the thirty-one national unions which exclude Negroes from membership, nineteen are in the railroading industry.

Generally, the position of the Negro was better in the miner's union and in the longshoremen's union than in any of those discussed above. The United Mine Workers of America, organized in 1890, was an industrial union which organized "all workers in and around the mines" regardless of color. Thus, this organization never drew a color line with regard to membership. Quite to the contrary, it encouraged Negro mine workers to join the union, and accorded them full privileges of membership. Union leaders early learned that this policy helped to discourage the importation of Negro strikebreakers, a major cause of racial conflict in the industry. However, race and nationality differences did sometimes become a disturbing element in the union, particularly in the Southern Appalachian region, where Negro workers were used from the beginning of mining operations. When such differences did appear, union leaders combated them strenuously.

The Negro Inventor

The tremendous industrial expansion of the period 1860-1920 owed a great deal to the entrepreneurial leadership supplied by a large number of outstanding industrialists and capitalists, but it would have been impossible without the inventive genius of many Americans whose inventions sometimes led to the creation, and sometimes to the salvation of a given industry. The American Negro, through his inventive genius, contributed to the industrial growth of the nation, demonstrating his ability to bring new ideas to innumerable fields with innovations which at times revolutionized an industry. It is often difficult to cite with absolute accuracy all Negroes who have received patents because racial identification of applicants was not always recorded. Some inventors who were Negroes have been recorded, and - for these - the information is easily available. The investigator finds a great deal of difficulty in determining Negro inventors under the Confederate States of America, for the Confederate constitution of 1861 specifically provided, that, in case a slave invented an appliance, the master, upon oath that he was owner of such a slave, could have the device patented. The enactment of this provision clearly suggests that patent rights for inventions by Negroes was of sufficient importance to merit the attention of the lawmakers.

Perhaps the most notable of pre-Civil War Negro inventors was Norbert Rillieux. Rillieux, a machinist and engineer, was born in Louisiana on March 18, 1806. Although his invention was made in the period prior to 1860, it is discussed here because of its widespread use during later periods. In 1846, Rillieux invented a vacuum pan which revolutionized the method of refining sugar. Before his innovation, all sugar produced was of a crude, brown type rather than the more highly refined white sugar which was produced afterwards. Rillieux's contribution to the development of the sugar industry was recognized by a bronze plaque placed on the wall of the Cabildo, the state museum in New Orleans, in his honor by the sugar manufacturers of the United States.

An example of the recognition accorded by one of our industries to a person of color whose invention revolutionized an industry is the case of Elijah McCoy. McCoy was born in Colchester, Ontario, Canada, May 2, 1844. His parents, however, were fugitive slaves who had escaped from Kentucky. He learned mechanical engineering in Scotland as an apprentice before he came to Detroit to find work. His first job was with the Michigan Central Railroad as a fireman where one of his duties was oiling the locomotive engines from time to time. This task finally resulted in his invention of what he called the lubricating cup which soon came into general use on the railroads of the Northwest, and on the steamers of the Great Lakes. The use of the lubricating cup became widespread, and today there is hardly a place in the world where McCoy's lubricating devices, or others based upon his models, are not used. Concentrating his efforts in the field of machine maintenance, Elijah McCoy was granted fifty-seven patents for lubricating devices between 1872-1920.

A second Negro inventor, Granville Woods, is best known for his development of the "third rail" in the electrification of the New York City transportation system. Woods was born free in Columbus, Ohio, on April 23, 1856. At the age of ten, he began working in a machine shop learning the trade of machinist and blacksmith. After working as a fireman and engineer on the Iron Mountain Railroads of Missouri, and serving two years as an engineer on a British steamer, Woods turned his talents increasingly to invention.

In 1890, he developed the "third rail," which precipitated a riot by displaced white steam locomotive engineers. Soon afterward, he invented a system by which telegraphing was made possible between trains in motion, technically known as induction telegraphy. During the next thirty years, he perfected twenty-five inventions, and held a total of one hundred and fifty patents. The largest electrical companies in the United States were happy to utilize Woods' appliances. The records in the United States Patent Office indicate the assignment of patents by Woods to the General Electric Company, the Westinghouse Air Brake Company, the American Bell Telephone Company, and the American Engineering Company. Later in life, Woods secured a position in the Thomas A. Edison Laboratory at an annual salary of $10,000. Woods died in 1910. Few inventors of any race have produced a larger number of appliances, and few have contributed more to the development of industry than Granville T. Woods.

Louis Howard Latimer, born in Chelsea, Massachusetts, September, 1848, was another Negro inventor of the period. He learned mechanical drawing in the office of Crosby and Gould in Boston, Massachusetts. It was during this period of employment that he made the drawings for Alexander Graham Bell's telephone which were submitted by this firm for a United States patent. Latimer, at one time, was a colleague of Granville T. Woods in the laboratory of Thomas A. Edison. In 1879 while he was employed as a secretary and draftsman for Hiram S. Maxim, inventor of the Maxim gun, Latimer invented a carbon filament for the Maxim Electric Lamp. Between 1880-1882, he manufactured the Maxim patented incandescent lamps in London, and later, directed the installation of electric light systems in London, New York, and Philadelphia.

The final step in the mechanization of the shoe industry was taken when Jan Ernest Matzeliger of New York invented a patent laster, known as the "consolidated machine", in 1883. Matzeliger was born in Paramaribo in Dutch Guiana on September 15, 1852, the son of a Negro woman and a Dutch engineer. He had contact with machinery as a very young boy, having worked in a machine shop when ten years old. Young Matzeliger came to the United States to learn shoe-cobbling, first in Philadelphia, and later in Lynn, Massachusetts. The drudgery of sitting on a bench all the time over the shoes on which he was working caused his health to fail; this led to his determination to perfect a machine which would relieve workers of this drudgery. The machine which he ultimately perfected pulled the upper over the last by machinery, and held it there preparatory to applying the sole, either by the McKay or Goodyear process. Skilled hand-lasters could attach soles to only sixty pairs of shoes in one day, whereas, Matzeliger machine operators could attach soles to four hundred pairs a day.

Matzeliger's patent was purchased by Sidney W. Winslow, and served as a foundation for the organization of the United Shoe Machinery Company, an

Preceding Page Missing

failed, especially prior to 1900. A major factor in such failures was the lack of experience and training of Negro businessmen of the period. A large number were recruited from the ranks of the ministry, and teaching professions; and though they had a strong desire to contribute to race advancement, this hardly compensated for their lack of business experience. A lack of investment capital and access to capital resources, which were controlled by whites, were also significant factors in business failures among Negroes.

Negro businessmen were most successful in the insurance field. A large number of insurance companies which remain strong financial institutions today were established during this period. Most early Negro insurance companies were outgrowths of the nickel and dime burial associations maintained by lodges and churches. Prior to 1920, Negro entrepreneurs had a monopoly in the Negro market, for white insurance companies were reluctant to insure Negroes, whom they considered unprofitable and bad risks. Later, as the Negro's income and life expectancy rose, they entered the field offering Negro insurance companies stiff competition.

The Mississippi Life Insurance Company was the first legal reserve company organized by Negroes. In 1909, its founder, Dr. A. A. Attaway, with the aid of a white banker and capitalist, organized this company. Much of its early success is attributed to the wise and diligent leadership of Dr. Joseph E. Walker, a young Negro physician, who was appointed president soon after its establishment.

The two largest and perhaps most successful Negro insurance companies in existence today were organized during this period. The North Carolina Mutual Life Insurance Company had its origins in the acquisition of a tottering religious and fraternal insurance program by John Merrick, a prosperous Negro bricklayer and barbershop operator, of Raleigh, N. C. His employment of C. C. Spaulding brought into the business an ambitious and enterprising young Negro, whose initiative and fair-dealing soon won him the confidence of Negroes in the state. Utilizing the advertising techniques of his day - the distribution of calendars, pencils, fans, and paperweights - Spaulding acquainted most Negroes in the southeast with his company. By 1925, North Carolina Mutual had assets of $2,000,000 and $42,000,000 worth of insurance in force. The Atlanta Life Insurance Company was organized during this period by Alonzo Herndon, operator of a chain of prosperous barber shops in Atlanta. Today, it has the largest assets of any Negro insurance company.

The first banks organized and operated solely by Negroes were established as early as 1888. These were the Savings Bank of the Grand Fountain and United Order of True Reformers in Richmond, Virginia, and the Capital City Bank of Washington, D. C. In the following year, the Mutual Bank and Trust Company was established in Chattanooga, Tennessee. By 1914, more than fifty-five banks had been established by Negroes. Most early Negro banks had a common origin, for most were established as depositories for fraternal funds.

Though many banks were established by Negroes, most were short-lived. Thus, there were only a very small number in existence at any one time. For example, in 1907 only six were operating. But at least thirty banks ultimately survived into the 1920's. One major factor in the high mortality rate among Negro banks was the early poverty of Negroes and their inability to support many banks. Moreover, Negro depositors and borrowers were not engaged in trade and industry in sufficient volume to support banks for an extended period.

Beauty culture proved to be one of the most profitable business fields for Negro enterprise. Three Negro women - Sarah E. Spencer of Norfolk, Virginia, "Madame" J. C. Walker of New York, and A. E. Malone of St. Louis, developed profitable enterprises in the manufacture and distribution of skin and hair products. Madame Walker, born of ex-slave parents in Louisiana, developed a "hair conditioner" in 1905. Beginning as a door-to-door peddler of her product, she had such success that she later established a large plant in Indianapolis to manufacture her product, and a school to train agents and cosmetologists. By the time of her death in 1919, Madame Walker, as well as Mrs. Malone, had accumulated estates in excess of $1,000,000.

The period 1860-1920 was a period of initiation for the Negro business man. Operating in a segregated section of the economy with limited capital and business experience, his business activities represented only a very minor aspect of the total business development of the nation. However, these efforts do indicate the Negro's desire for economic advancement, and they provided a much-needed business apprenticeship from which Negro business leaders of the succeeding generation have profited.

UNIT V: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Baker, Henry E. The Colored Inventor. New York: The Crisis Publishing Co. 1913. o.p.

Bontemps, Arna. 100 Years of Negro Freedom. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1961.

Brawley, Benjamin G. Negro Builders and Heroes. Chapel Hill, N.C.: The University of North Carolina Press. 1937.

Du Bois, W. E. B. The Negro in Business. Atlanta, Ga.: Atlanta University Press. 1899.

Frazier, E. Franklin. Black Bourgeoisie; The Rise of a New Middle Class in the U. S. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press. 1899.

Greene, Lorenzo. The Negro Wage Earner. Washington, D.C.: The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Inc. 1930.

Hughes, Langston, and Meltzer, Milton. A Pictorial History of the Negro in America. New York: Crown. 1950. il.

Kane, Joseph N. Famous First Facts: A Record of First Happenings, Discoveries and Inventions in the U. S. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. 1950.

Mather, Frank L. Who's Who of the Colored Race. Chicago: Mather, F. L. (Privately published, 1915)

Nicholas, J. L. and Crogman, William H. Progress of a Race. Naperville, Illinois: J. L. Nichols and Co. 1920.

Oliver, John W. History of American Technology. New York: The Ronald Press. 1956.

Ottley, Roi. Black Odyssey. New York: Charles Scribner's. 1948.

Ottley, Roi. "Brown Geniuses of Invention," The Negro Digest. Vol. VI, No. 10, pp. 15-20 (August, 1948).

Simmons, William. Men of Mark: Eminent, Progressive and Rising. Cleveland, Ohio: George M. Revell and Co. 1887. o.p.

Wesley, Charles H. Negro Labor in the United States, 1850-1925. New York: Vanguard Press. 1927.

Work, Monroe N. Negro Yearbook. Tuskegee, Alabama: Negro Yearbook Publishing Co. 1937-38.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT VI: THE REFORM MOVEMENT

1900-1915

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT VI: THE REFORM MOVEMENT, 1900-1915

Introduction

Interest in social reform became a dynamic force during the years immediately preceding the twentieth century. The rapid industrialization of the country, and the changes caused by the shift from an agrarian to an urban society created problems so serious and diverse that a wave of reform movements engaged the nation. The rapidly growing cities, long the prey of unscrupulous politicians, began ousting their corrupt bosses. The cause of children, who for many years were exploited by industry, was championed and their lot improved by protective child labor laws. The women's suffrage movement gained support and additional victories, particularly in the western states. Public reaction against big business resulted in the enactment of legislation to control trusts, to manage the banking system, and to regulate railroads.

America's largest minority group, the Negro, however, benefited little from the enthusiasm for reform which gripped the nation. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the American Negro was still oppressed by the denials and injustices of the post-reconstruction era. The withdrawal of Federal troops from the South in 1877, and legislation barring the use of military forces in federal elections cleared the way for the disfranchisement of the Negro in the South and ended his political effectiveness. Mississippi, followed by Louisiana and most of the other southern states, initiated a movement of suffrage restriction which by 1910 had effectively eliminated the Negro from southern politics. This was accomplished by constitutional and legislative provisions establishing educational, property, and poll tax qualifications for the suffrage. In addition to these methods, Negro political activity was further curtailed by the establishment of the white primary which eliminated the Negro from the only election of any real importance in the one-party South. The Supreme Court decision in Plessy vs. Ferguson in 1896, upholding the doctrine of "separate but equal," resulted in the rapid spread of racial segregation in schools, travel accommodations, and other public facilities.

Educational opportunities for Negroes became fewer and more restricted. The results of a survey made in 1912 indicated that in fifteen states and the District of Columbia, $10.12 was spent for the education of each white child, whereas only $2.89 was spent for each Negro child. Negroes were also frequently denied admission to many colleges, technical and trade schools, libraries, museums, and other cultural centers.

Booker T. Washington and Education for the Negro

Booker T. Washington shared the opinion of many that the answer to the problems faced by the Negro at the opening of the twentieth century was education. In the South, where industrial and vocational educational programs for Negroes won ready support from southern whites, Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, and Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute exerted a great influence on Negroes during the early years of the century.

Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute was founded in 1868 by General Samuel Chapman Armstrong who subscribed to the philosophy that labor is a spiritual force, and that physical work promotes fidelity, accuracy, honesty, persistence, and intelligence. The aim of the program at Hampton was, therefore, the acquisition of skills and preparation for vocations which would enable its graduates to become skilled workers as well as home and land owners. Chief among its graduates was Booker T. Washington, founder of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute.

Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, founded in 1881, reflected the educational philosophy with which Washington had become acquainted at Hampton. It also reflected the founder's belief in the educational value of self-help methods, manual labor, moral training, and mental development. He credited industrial education with developing a love of labor, habits of thrift, and the desire for home and land. The school offered courses in agriculture, home economics, business education, music, commercial dietetics, veterinary medicine, and in forty technical and vocational trades. Such education was considered the best foundation for professional education and responsible public office. Under his direction, Tuskegee organized and sponsored monthly institutes for farmers, a town night school, a ministers' night school, mothers' meetings, state and county fairs, and farm demonstration work.

In spite of criticism by Du Bois, and other proponents of liberal education for Negroes, who considered the Washington approach too narrow and restricted in scope, the success and fame of the Tuskegee educational program spread throughout the nation, bringing credit and honor to its founder. Washington, a former slave, received honorary degrees from Harvard and Dartmouth Universities, and was warmly received by the heads of European countries which he visited.

Washington was a writer and an organizer as well as an educator. Among his writings are The Future of the American Negro, The Education of the Negro, Tuskegee and Its People, The Negro in Business, and Up From Slavery, his widely read autobiography. He founded the National Negro Business League, which gave impetus to the founding of building and loan associations, mutual savings, and other business enterprises.

The Protection of Rights of Negro Citizens: Organizations and Movements

By 1900, many Negroes and white liberals, motivated by the need for reform, co-operated in the organization of powerful groups dedicated to the improvement of the status of the Negro American. The Niagara Movement, founded by W. E. B. Du Bois, was one of these. Dr. Du Bois, with the possible exception of Booker T. Washington, was the most prominent and influential Negro leader of the early twentieth century. Excellently educated at Fish, Berlin, and Harvard Universities, where he earned the Ph.D. degree, the young scholar decided upon a career of teaching and research to raise the educational and intellectual level of Negroes.

Du Bois contended that opportunities for higher education in the liberal arts, exercise of the franchise, and insistence upon civil rights were essential if Negroes were ever to escape a hopelessly subordinate status. He believed that higher education should make leaders of men, rather than artisans. This position was substantially different from that held by Booker T. Washington, acknowledged by most whites to be the spokesman for Negroes. Washington set his focus on the Negro masses, for whom he considered vocational education to provide skills and a measure of economic security more important than pressing for social and political rights. His willingness to postpone pressure for social and political rights led to his acclaim by the majority of Southern whites, and to a bitter controversy with Du Bois and his followers.

The Niagara Movement of 1905 represents the break between Du Bois and Washington, and the effort of Du Bois to mobilize the articulate Negroes to fight for their rights. Having met at Niagara Falls, Ontario, after American hotels refused to accommodate the members, the conference issued a "Declaration of Principles," dedicating itself to work for the elimination of discrimination, for legal justice, manhood suffrage, and civil rights. The Niagara group appealed for the co-operation of all men of all races to accomplish these ends. In addition, constant protest and the dissemination of "truth" was made through its official publication, The Moon.

Lack of funds and organizational problems doomed the Niagara Movement from the outset. Though the membership in the movement increased from 29 to 236 members between 1905 and 1907, there were never adequate funds to implement the "Declaration of Principles." Du Bois as Executive Secretary gave the movement whatever continuity it had. Its narrow base of membership, which included educated Negroes from the professions and from business, also diminished its general appeal. Nevertheless, the Niagara Movement, with its limited success, presaged a tendency toward organized protest on the part of Negroes, a tendency which has never ceased.

The activities and influence of Du Bois extended far beyond the Niagara Conference. He was a scholar and a prolific writer who produced more than fifteen monographs, of which Souls of Black Folk and Black Reconstruction are probably the best known, as well as over a hundred articles. For more than twenty years, he edited The Crisis, the official organ of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.

The Crisis was conceived by W. E. B. Du Bois in 1910, as the mouthpiece for the newly organized National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. It came, however, to reflect the ideology of the editor almost exclusively. It contained "unequivocal conclusions" and unlimited "advice" in the areas of Negro-White relations. The editor endorsed "systematic charity, systematic migration, and planned cultivation of Negro art, drama, literature, and history-pageantry." The magazine also included sections devoted to reports and addresses of the NAACP, to biographies of outstanding Negroes, to important events regarding Negroes, to Negro high schools, Negro athletes, and Negro womens' clubs. International issues involving race were also included. Du Bois' fervor in denouncing, censoring, and critizing the abuses perpetrated against Negroes gained for him the title, "Father of Militant Journalism."

In 1909, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, popularly known as the NAACP, was organized. This organization was largely a response to a pattern of violence and discrimination which characterized the period. More specifically, however, the revulsion of feelings of Negro leaders and white liberals against the atrocities committed against Negroes during the Springfield, Illinois, riot of 1908, was the immediate incident which led to the founding of the Association.

W. E. B. Du Bois and Mary White Ovington, a white social worker of independent means, were instrumental in founding the Association. Mary White Ovington gained first hand knowledge of the plight of the Negro from a survey she made of the Negro ghetto, and from her experiences in Atlanta during the riot of 1906. As a result of these experiences, she committed herself to the cause of the Negro Americans in their desire and demand for the same rights and privileges enjoyed by white Americans. When the Springfield riot occurred in 1908, she and Henry Moskowitz, a Jewish social worker, joined in planning to prevent similar atrocities in the future.

It was the plan of these two liberal whites to call together a group of prominent Negro and white leaders to organize a national committee to work for the protection of the rights of Negroes. Such a committee, the National Negro Committee, was formed in May, 1909, in response to a call written by Oswald Garrison Villard. It was supported by sixty prominent Americans, including Mayor Brand Whitlock of Toledo, educator John Dewey, social worker Jane Addams, and by Negro leaders such as W. E. B. Du Bois and Francis J. Grimke, a militant Negro minister of Washington, D. C. At its second annual meeting in 1910, the National Negro Committee changed its name to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, drew up its aims, and elected its permanent officers. The aims of the Association were militant, uncompromising, and compatible with those adopted five years earlier by the Niagara group. Foremost among these were complete equality before the law, justice in the courts, and an impartial suffrage. In addition, the Association planned to promote efforts to gain equal educational and economic opportunities for Negroes, and to eradicate caste and race prejudice.

During the same years in which the Niagara Movement and the NAACP were founded, there was a trend toward the mass movement of Negroes northward to industrial centers. Oppressed, unemployed Negro workers turned toward industrialized Northern cities with the prospect and hope for jobs in the North. Urban living, however, presented problems of employment and residence which Negro immigrants from the oppressive southern agrarian society could not meet. The National Urban League was born of the need to improve the welfare of Negroes in urban areas. The organization was a result of the merger of two groups - the Committee for Improving Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York, and the National League for the Protection of Colored Women. George E. Haynes, a member of the Sociology Department of Fisk University, worked for the first group as interviewer and assistant for placing Negro graduates of a vocational night school in jobs. In 1910, he interested Mrs. William Baldwin and Frances Kellor of the National League in forming a third committee for the education and training of Negroes in social service schools. At the New York School of Philanthropy, with Mrs. Baldwin presiding, the Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes was formed. Its aims were to find and create employment for Negroes in industry, to improve relationships between Negro and white workers, to gain admission of Negro workers to labor unions, and to train social workers.

The Urban League was very fortunate in having the financial support of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Julius Rosenwald, William Schiefflin, Mrs. William H. Baldwin, and Frances Kellor. Among other supporters of the League were Booker T. Washington, Kelly Miller, Negro sociologist, and Robert R. Moten, Negro educator. During its early years, the Urban League made invaluable contributions toward improving the condition of urban Negroes by screening raw recruits to northern industry, steering Negroes to social service agencies for care, supervision, and direction, locating housing for Negro workers, providing a clearing house of information, and establishing rapport between Negro workers and their employers.

The Negro Press in the Early Twentieth Century

Following in the tradition of nineteenth century Negro journalists Samuel Cornish and John B. Russwurm, early twentieth century Negro journalists effectively used the press to mold public opinion concerning the rights of Negroes. Among the most influential publications were The New York Age (1886), The Boston Guardian (1901), The Chicago Defender (1905), and The Crisis (1910).

Three years after the founding of Du Bois' Niagara Movement, Monroe Trotter, a Negro Phi Beta Kappa Harvard graduate and editor of The Boston Guardian, founded the National Equal Rights League. This group was considered extremely radical because of its demands for equal rights and complete desegregation in all areas of American life. In his newspaper, Trotter fiercely attacked the segregation movement, and worked against discrimination in employment in Boston. He was successful in securing a gentleman's agreement against presenting any film or stage play in Boston which degraded the Negro race.

The Boston Guardian, became the voice of the northern Negro intelligentsia. For years, it lashed out against the disfranchisement of Negroes in the South, job discrimination in Boston, and against other denials of civil rights to Negroes. In the presidential campaign of 1912, the weekly supported Woodrow Wilson after Trotter had twice conferred with the candidate on the matter of his support of programs and measures to improve the status of Negroes. Disillusioned by Wilson's failure to fulfill his campaign promises, and his failure to take steps to eliminate segregation in several government departments, Trotter withdrew his support.

The New York Age, noted for its support of Booker T. Washington, was founded by T. Thomas Fortune, in partnership with Jerome B. Peterson, in 1886. To offset the paper's financial difficulties, Washington secretly gave financial support, which action was severly attacked by his critics who accused him of buying favorable publicity. There is no doubt that The Age helped Washington to maintain his position of leadership by publicizing and promoting his programs. The successes of the Afro-American

Council and of the Negro Business League have been attributed to the favorable publicity which they received in the paper. When the owner-editor, T. T. Fortune, could no longer support President Theodore Roosevelt because of the Brownesville Affair, a break occurred between him and Washington, who continued to support President Roosevelt and his successor, President Taft. After Fortune and Washington sold their interests in the paper, it lost much of its former influence.

Robert Abbot brought a new departure to Negro journalism in 1905, with the founding of The Chicago Defender, which relied on sensational headline to attract readers. Whereas most other Negro journals had been designed to appeal to the intelligentsia, The Defender aimed to attract the masses. It did much to stimulate Negro migration to the North by presenting it as the "Promised Land" of the Negro. In spite of its sensationalism, it did much to publicize injustices and denials of civil rights and liberties to Negroes.

The support of an articulate Negro press in the early twentieth century contributed significantly to the fight for equal rights and opportunity for Negroes.

Some Prominent Negroes of the Period 1900-1915

Although the fight for equal rights and opportunities consumed the energies of the majority of capable Negroes in the early twentieth century, a few others managed to gain distinction in literature, art, science, and statesmanship. In the area of literature, James Weldon Johnson and William Stanley B raithwaite are perhaps the most widely known. James Weldon Johnson was a poet and educator, serving for several years as Professor of Creative Literature at Fisk University. His poem, "The Creation," is still widely read today. William Stanley Braithwaite became one of the foremost critics of American poetry of the early twentieth century. He was a regular contributor to the Boston Evening Transcript, and issued annually, An Anthology of Magazine Verse. Appraising his contribution to American poetry, an editor writing in the Evening Transcript, November 30, 1915, commented: "One is guilty of no extravagance in saying that the poets we have--and they may take their place with their peers in our country--and the gathering deference we pay them, are created largely out of the stubborn self-effacing enthusiasm of this one man." William Tanner was no doubt the most prominent Negro painter of the period. His most famous work, The Raising of Lazarus, won prizes at the Paris and Pan American Expositions in 1900 and in 1901, respectively. It now hangs on exhibition in the Louvre in Paris.

In the field of science and exploration, George Washington Carver and Matthew Henson are well known. Dr. Carver gained prominence for his successful research on the peanut and the sweet potato which demonstrated the large number of commercial uses for these products. A humble, self-effacing man, Dr. Carver never succumbed to opportunities to exploit his talents for personal gain, preferring the life of a cloistered scientist and teacher at Tuskegee Institute where he did most of his work. Matthew Henson's chosen field was arctic exploration. He accompanied Commander Robert E. Peary on his expedition to the North Pole, and leaving the rest of the expedition behind at its base, pushed on with the Commander to plant the American flag at the Pole in 1909.

As this period drew to a close, there emerged to the forefront another writer who used his pen to further the cause of the Negro, Carter G. Woodson, founder of The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Many Negro leaders recognized the need to publicize contributions of Negroes to the history of world progress. Textbooks and monographs, even more than at present, generally omitted information regarding Negro achievements in telling the story of national development. Woodson believed that through knowledge of his ancient, civilized past, the Negro would be inspired to work for a more glorious future, and white Americans would gain a new appreciation of him. He began research in Negro history, and encouraged others to contribute to knowledge in this field. Rebuffed by publishers who refused to publish his research, Woodson founded the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History in 1915. This organization published The Journal of Negro History, a scholarly quarterly now in its forty-eighth year, as well as monographs on many aspects of Negro life and culture. The organization fostered the specialized training of men and women for research in the field of Negro history, encouraged the acquisition of materials on Negro life by research libraries, and effectively stimulated historical investigation in this neglected area of study. The annual observance of Negro History Week in February of each year was initiated by the Association.

UNIT VI: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Detweiler, Frederick G. The Negro Press in the United States. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 1922.

Frazier, E. Franklin. The Negro in the United States. New York: Macmillan Co. 1949.

Hofstadter, Richard; Miller, William; Aaron, Daniel. The American Republic Since 1865. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Hughes, Langston. Fight For Freedom. The Story of the N.A.A.C.P. New York: Berkley Publishing Corporation. 1962.

Klingberg, Frank J. "Carter Godwin Woodson, Historian and His Contribution to American Histography". The Journal of Negro History, XLI (1956) 66-68.

Logan, Rayford W. Negro in the United States. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. 1957.

Ovington, M. W. "The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People". The Journal of Negro History, IX (1924), 107-116.

Puttkammer, Charles W. and Warthy, Ruth. "William Monroe Trotter, 1872-1934". The Journal of Negro History, XLIII (1958), 298-316.

Rudwick, Elliott M. "The Niagara Movement". The Journal of Negro History, XLII (1957), 177-200.

Schlesinger, Arthur M. The Rise of Modern America, 1865-1951. New York: Macmillan Co. 1951.

United States Commission on Civil Rights. Freedom To The Free. 1863 Century of Emancipation 1963. Washington, D.C. U. S. Government Printing Office. 1963.

Wood, L. Hollingsworth. "The Urban League Movement". The Journal of Negro History, IX (1924), 117-126.

UNIT VII: AN EMERGING WORLD POWER

1890-1920

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT VII: AN EMERGING WORLD POWER, 1890-1920

Introduction

During the years 1890-1920, the United States emerged as one of the great powers of the world. Now, in place of an all-absorbing concern for settlement of the frontier or the construction of internal improvements, America began to look outward and to reveal a growing interest in the Pacific Area, the Caribbean, South America, and, to a more limited extent, in Africa and Europe. As the United States increasingly assumed the role of guardian of the civilization of the New World, this meant the ultimate transfer of American democratic ideals, institutions and influence to many distant peoples in lands far beyond the continental boundaries of the United States.

The emergence of the United States as a World Power had numerous implications for the American Negro population which numbered nearly 10,000,000. First, many of the areas acquired by the United States or brought under her control were inhabited by the "darker peoples". Moreover, the process involved two conflicts, the "Splendid Little War" of 1898, and the crusade for democracy in 1917, both of which involved the American Negro citizen as a fighting man.

With regard to the Negro citizen, the years of America's emergence as a great power were disappointing. The deterioration of his political and social status, the evolution of a legal caste system to replace the slave status in some parts of the country, and pressing problems of employment and segregation were all obvious indications of a paradox in a land which boasted of its democratic practices and institutions.

The Negro in the War with Spain

America's emergence as a World Power was apparent in the years after 1890. These were years during which a maturing economy and expanded interest in the Pacific Area prepared the American mind for further imperialistic adventure. This opportunity was provided by the "Cuban Puzzle" which resulted from the breakdown of the Spanish Empire in America and the subsequent Cuban drive for self-determination. A combination of factors - Cuban propaganda, American economic interests, "yellow journalism", moralistic and humanitarian sentiments - all seemed to conspire to enlist American sympathies and ultimately resulted in active American participation in a conflict which involved no issue of American vital interest or American security.

The decision for military action in Cuba brought the McKinley administration face to face with the serious military problem of raising, supplying, and transferring troops to Cuba. But it also raised the problem of administration policy with regard to the use of Negro troops in the Cuban campaign. Such troops were available and might be drawn from two sources - volunteers and regular army units; for in 1898, there were four Negro units in the regular army which had seen service in western Indian campaigns, and had garrisoned forts in the West. Colonel Charles Young, the highest ranking Negro officer and, at the time, the only Negro graduate from West Point was among that number.

Organized state militia units were the first units called up for service; these contained few Negroes. However, volunteer Negro regiments organized in some northern and western states were not accepted by the Army. Pressure exerted upon Congress by Negro groups to authorize the raising of Negro troops ultimately resulted in the decision to raise ten regiments of Negro soldiers officered by whites above the rank of second lieutenant. At the same time, some states - Alabama, North Carolina, Virginia, Illinois, and Indiana - authorized the organization of Negro troops led by Negro line and staff officers. The extent of the enlistment of Negroes in federal and state units cannot be finally determined, but the record does indicate that four Negro units of the Regular Army saw considerable service at San Juan Hill with the "Roughriders", and at the battle of El Carney. Four of the volunteer units, while not pressed into active service, did garrison duty in Cuba at the end of the war.

The conclusion of the war with Spain resulted in the acquisition of new territories by the United States, and new interests in the Caribbean area. During the ensuing decade, control of the area was held to be vital to the security of the country. It is significant that most of the territories in the area had considerable numbers of Negroes in their populations ranging from an estimated 30% in Puerto Rico to approximately 90% in the Virgin Islands. In addition, there were large numbers of Negroes in Cuba, the Panama Canal Zone, Santo Domingo, and Haiti - all of which were ultimately drawn into the American political orbit as protectorates.

Inevitably, the extension of American influence into these areas injected implications of race into American imperial policy. It was impossible to completely disassociate imperial policy in the island possessions and republics from the racial problem on the mainland. Thus, the Virgin Islands was generally considered a Negro problem, and suggestions for the extension of political liberties to Negroes in the island possessions were rejected as likely to inspire Negroes in the United States. Perhaps an equally significant result of growing American influence in the Caribbean was that American control of this area afforded an opportunity for utilizing the talents of able Negroes in the Diplomatic Service. Significantly, they were only sent to "Negro republics". Generally, U. S. Ministers to Haiti were Negroes between 1870-1914 and included John M. Langston, J. E. W. Thompson, and Frederick Douglass, all of whom maintained a deep interest in the political and economic development of this country and in alleviating the sometimes discriminatory treatment accorded American vessels in Haitian ports. Negroes also continued to represent the United States at Monrovia, Liberia, as they had since 1871.

The Negro in World War I

The Spanish-American War and subsequent involvement in the Caribbean and the Western Pacific Areas resulted in a new international status for the United States. But it was during the First World War that the nation reluctantly found itself a participant, and as a result, was catapulted into a position of world leadership. On the eve of the First World War, the American Negro was faced with problems of political and economic inequality, segregation, and discrimination in the United States. The social justice wing of the progressive crusade, while taking up the battle for child and woman labor, had largely passed the Negro by. By 1914, political disfranchisement in the South was virtually complete; and opposition from organized labor, itself insecure, limited employment opportunities for Negroes in urban areas. Moreover, nearly complete segregation of Negro workers in government offices was effected with the tacit assent of President Wilson. Several jurisdictions in southern and border states - Baltimore, St. Louis, Louisville, Norfolk, Atlanta, and New Orleans - enacted residential segregation ordinances.

From the point of view of the Negro, there existed a wide gulf between the profession and practice of democratic principles which the War President supported in his negotiations with the belligerent nations. Early in 1917, the United States made the transition from the role of a neutral to that of a belligerent and became committed to a war "to make the world safe for democracy".

As preparations went forward to raise an army, serious questions of racial military policy were raised as they had been in 1898. At this point, there was no question about organizing and utilizing Negro troops, for there were already more than 20,000 in the Regular Army and in the National Guard, and ultimately 367,000 were called up by Selective Service. But there was a question as to Army policy regarding training of Negro officers, for no provisions were made for this purpose in the early months of the War. Organized Negro protest succeeded in securing authorization for an officer-training program at Camp De Moines. Significantly, Colonel Charles Young was retired at this time for physical disability despite his dramatic ride from Wilberforce, Ohio, to Washington, D. C., to demonstrate his physical fitness.

Some southern states opposed the establishment of facilities for training Negro troops in the area because of the racial friction which frequently resulted. Washington received many complaints of discrimination by civilian service agencies in southern training areas. Late in 1917, Emmett J. Scott, former long-time secretary to Booker T. Washington, was appointed as Special Assistant to the Secretary of War with the responsibility for advising the Secretary on matters affecting the Negro in relation to the war effort. He urged equal and impartial application of Selective Service regulations, and worked to promote healthy morale among both Negro soldiers and civilians.

Though more than fifty thousand of the Negro troops sent abroad were assigned laborer and stevedore duties, the record indicates that those employed as combat troops upheld the best traditions of the American fighting man; some units won decorations and citations from the French Government for bravery in combat.

While Negro troops were fighting abroad, there was taking place on the home front a migration out of the South which was ultimately to have most important consequences for both the Negro and the nation. The migration began late in 1915, reached its height in 1917-18, and continued on into the early twenties. Many factors and forces contributed to the migration, but it is apparent that the fundamental cause was economic. Generally, wages in the South were depressed during 1914 and 1915 at a time when there was an increasing demand for workers in the industrial areas of the North and West. A sharp decline in immigration during the war years indicated that 60% fewer immigrants came to America in 1915 than had entered in 1910. Thus, the availability of jobs and higher wages constituted imposing "pull" forces and, with the urging of northern labor agents who came South, thousands of Negroes pulled up stakes and migrated to northern industrial areas. It appears that the Negro migrant was not unaware of better educational opportunities available in the new area and of the prospects of better justice.

The mass movement of the labor element from the South brought alarm to many in the South, and led to planned efforts to slow down or stop the movement. Some southern jurisdictions passed ordinances levying exorbitant fees on labor agents. Negroes planning migration were sometimes threatened, and the southern press attempted to impede the movement by emphasizing the hardships and suffering encountered by many migrants to the North. Nevertheless, the migration continued and the states of the North and West showed a net gain of 330,000 Negroes in their populations for the decade 1910-1920.

UNIT VII: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Broderick, Francis L. *W. E. B. DuBois: Negro Leader in a Time of Crisis.* Stanford: University of Stanford Press. 1959.

Heywood, Chester D. *Negro Combat Troops in the World War.* Worcester. 1928.

Franklin, John Hope. *From Slavery to Freedom.* New York: Albert L. Knopf. 1947.

Glass, Edward L. *A History of the Tenth Calvary, 1866-1901.* Tucson. 1921.

Chew, Abraham. *A Biography of Colonel Charles Young.* Washington. 1933.

Kennedy, Louise D. *The Negro Peasant Turns Cityward.* New York. 1930.

Johnson, Edward A. *A History of the Negro Soldier in the Spanish-American War.* Raleigh. 1899.

Scott, Emmett J. *The American Negro in the World War.* Washington, D. C. 1919.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK—NOT FILMED

UNIT VIII: "NORMALCY," DEPRESSION AND THE NEW DEAL

1920-1940

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT VIII: "NORMALCY," DEPRESSION AND THE NEW DEAL, 1920-1940

Introduction

The decades of the "twenties" and "thirties" were dominated by strong currents and subcurrents which shifted the base of Negro life and accentuated group attitudes "herein a spurt of progress, therein a backwash of reaction." These years saw the Negro transfer his fight to "make the world safe for democracy" to a struggle to retain at home the gains he had made during the First World War. This period witnessed the Negro developing a new race consciousness and determination; struggling through the depression, transferring his political allegiance to the Democratic Party, and making some gains during the era of the New Deal.

The massive shifts in population from the South to the North and from the rural areas to the urban centers continued. This migration of thousands into the cities and into the North in search of widening employment opportunities and comparative freedom from discrimination led to antagonism and resistance on the part of many whites. A revitalized Ku Klux Klan and other reactionary groups stimulated mob violence and conflicts.

Negro protest and action groups, intent upon achieving an improved economic, political, and social status came into being. Pessimism and bitterness developed as it became apparent that the aspirations and hopes for first class citizenship generated during the War had failed to materialize.

This period also saw a new surge of race consciousness and pride. With the migration of Negroes into the urban centers of the North, there was a decline in Negro illiteracy. The Negro press became more articulate. It became evident that a new Negro middle class was emerging.

These developments have come to be known as the New Negro or Harlem Renaissance Movement. The climate created by the interest in, and curiosity about the Negro on the part of northern intellectuals attracted and encouraged the development of an articulate and gifted group of Negro writers and artists who transformed their feelings into a number of literacy forms and gave expression to their talents in many ways.

Nevertheless, tensions continued to mount and movements gained impetus as the uneven prosperity of the "twenties" failed to trickle down to some groups, one of them Negro. Even in areas where the benefits of prosperity had been felt, the mid 1920's found thousands losing their jobs with the first signs of a recession. As the great depression advanced, the Negro suffered intensely.

Perhaps the most unexpected phenomenon of the period, however, was the dramatic transfer of the Negro vote from the Republican Party which had commanded it for three generations. This shift, which began in the 1920's but gained momentum in the 1930's, resulted in the greatly increased strength and influence of the Negro voter during the New Deal era. The gains, though often temporary, laid the foundation for basic progress to follow.

Negro Migration and Adjustment

The mass migration of the Negro out of the South during and immediately after the war was one of the most important social and economic domestic phenomenon of the period. Increased job opportunities in the expanded industries of the North and West during the First World War drew thousands of Negroes. In 1910, eighty-nine per cent of the Negro population lived in the South, with five-sixths of them in rural areas. It has been estimated, however, that as many as a million Negroes migrated into the industrial centers of the North in the period between 1916 and 1923. The census of 1920 showed that fifteen per cent of the Negro population lived in the North and the West; whereas, the census of 1930 showed the figure to be at twenty per cent. Thus, the decade of the "twenties" saw the Negro population outside the South increase by over sixty-four per cent, while it grew in the South by only five per cent.

The readjustment to post-war living, made more acute by population shifts, brought on serious social and economic conflicts. Serious conflicts developed. Laborers, industrialists, and politicians were anxious to "return to normalcy," while the newly determined Negro resisted a return to pre-war conditions. Instead, he insisted upon holding the gains that had been made and in moving forward to a new basis of democratic living in the United States. At the same time, reactionary groups were determined to resist all efforts of Negroes to obtain first-class citizenship.

The Ku Klux Klan, which had been revived in the Southern States as early as 1915 became exceedingly active. It spread into several New England States as well as into New York, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and other northern and mid-western states. This, and similar organizations, joined by the lawless elements of the population frequently terrorized Negro communities. A series of lynchings took place in the South,(1) and even more bloody riots swept the North.

These actions were met by a new determination and resistance on the part of the Negro. It was now clear that he was willing to fight and die in his own defense. Serious outbreaks of violence took place. Although the most serious occurred in 1919,(2) rioting continued for the next few years. One of the most celebrated court cases arising from conflicts over housing was the case of Dr. O. H. Sweet of Detroit who fired into a mob which was attacking his home.(3) Thus, this new determination to resist was introduced into the struggle of the Negro for first-class citizenship.

---

[1] There were 445 recorded cases of lynching from 1920 to 1940.

[2] The most serious occurred in Chicago in July, 1919, in which thirty-eight persons were killed, 537 were injured, and more than 1,000 families were homeless as a result of general destruction of property.

[3] There is an excellent discussion in Franklin, John Hope, From Slavery to Freedom.

Organized Opposition to Discrimination

Organizations, individuals, and groups actively protested the mistreatment of, and discrimination against, the Negro. Several organizations attempted to formulate plans to combat injustices to Negroes; however, it was the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People which took the lead.(4) In 1919, under James Weldon Johnson, it spearheaded a program for securing the passage of a federal law against lynching and undertook to intensify its drive to secure, through the courts, rights which Negroes could not otherwise obtain. Prominent among the issues fought, but not won, during this period was that of the exclusion of Negroes from the Democratic primaries in the South.

The Commission on Interracial Cooperation worked largely in the South to improve the conditions for Negroes. It was organized in 1919 to attempt to obtain better economic opportunities for Negroes, and to reduce racial conflicts through a program of education. The Southern Frontier was its official publication. It advocated equal justice under the law, the abolition of lynching, and the ballot for all citizens. Neither of the above organizations won the widespread support of the Negro masses, however.

It remained for Marcus Garvey and his Universal Negro Improvement Association to develop the first mass movement among American Negroes. Garvey exploited the mood of pessimism and built up an extraordinary following during the early 1920's among the masses. He exalted everything black and advocated that American Negroes should build up a country of their own in Africa. The black nationalism which he stimulated through parades, uniforms, and the like, strongly resembled the present day Black Muslim Movement.

Efforts were made to combat the discrimination against the Negro in organized labor through the formation of independent Negro unions. The most successful of these was the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters and Maids which was organized by A. Phillip Randolph in 1925. In spite of bitter opposition, it won an International A. F. of L. Charter in 1936, and finally won full recognition in 1937 as the bargaining agent for the Pullman Company porters and maids with a membership of 10,000. Another important Negro union was the United Transport Workers of America, which included redcaps, dining car waiters, and others.

Whereas in the decades following the First World War, gains were made by the Negro worker in some areas such as the Automobile and related industries, tobacco factories, clothing and some others, there was a widespread practice of excluding Negro workers from labor unions. This materially affected their ability to obtain jobs and to improve their working conditions. For example, one large railroad company reduced the number of its Negro firemen after the First World War by seventy per cent as a result of union activities.

Intellectual and Asthetic Progress

During these decades, remarkable movements giving expression to the thoughts and talents of Negroes were taking place - the new Negro movement or Harlem Renaissance during the "twenties" and subsequent activities in

---

[4] James Weldon Johnson was Secretary of the N.A.A.C.P. during this period. He was a writer, and had been U. S. Counsul to Venezuela and Nicaragua. See the cases Nixon v. Herndon; Nixon v. Condon; Grovey v. Townsend; and Smith v. Allwright.

the "thirties". The new group of Negro writers of the 1920's protested the denials of social and economic justice to Negroes. Moreover, they revealed a new race pride and took the opportunity offered by the interest of the northern intellectual in them to give expression to their feelings. Among the many young promising writers, Claude McKay is considered the first significant writer of the Harlem Renaissance. Even though he published poems in a number of magazines, turned his talents to novels and to his autobiography. His Harlem Shadows, a collection of poems, brought him greatest renown. It was his "If We Must Die" and similar poems which effectively expressed the feeling of defiance and impatience of a great many Negroes during this period. Jean Toomer, Countee Cullen, Langston Hughes, Arna Bontemps, Sterling Brown, and others also attracted considerable attention with their writings.(5) Walter White(6) and Jessie Fauset(7) emerged as popular fiction writers.

Many periodicals actively encouraged the young Negro writers of the period. The Crisis, the organ of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and Opportunity, the organ of the Urban League, did much to stimulate them. The American Mercury, Current History, the Survey Graphic, and others accepted and published their works.

There were those who stimulated, encouraged and interpreted the movement through writings, lectures, and other means. Two such were Alain Locke, a Rhodes scholar and a professor of philosophy at Howard University who did much to interpret it, and W. E. B. DuBois, former director of publicity and research for the N.A.A.C.P., who lectured widely.

An ungrading of Negro education in general, and the flowering of Negro scholarship in particular took place. Between 1920 and 1940 the literacy rate of Negroes increased from seventy-seven per cent to ninety per cent. The number of high school graduates increased from approximately 4,056 to 30,009 during this time. This advance came in spite of the great vast differential in financial support given to the schools for white children and that given for Negro children. In 1930, as an example, for every $7.00 spent on education for white children in the South, $2.00 were spent for Negro children. However, northern philanthropists contributed greatly toward bringing about enlarged opportunities in education for Negroes in the South. The Peabody Fund, the Slater Fund, the Jeanes Foundation, the Rosenwald Fund, the Phelps-Stokes Fund, and the General Education Board assisted greatly in the construction of school buildings, and awarded grants to promising Negro teachers. These efforts aided greatly in lifting the level of education for Negroes.

---

[5] Locke, Alain (ed.) The New Negro; and Butcher, Margaret J., The Negro in American Culture, (Ch. 8) goes into detail on this.

[6] At this time, White was a young investigator for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. He wrote "Fire in the Flint" and "Flight". Then, in 1929, he turned from fiction and wrote "Rope and Faggot: A Biography of Judge Lynch," an analysis of lynching, and other books.

[7] The most popular works by Fauset were: "There is Confusion" in 1924; "Plum Bun" in 1931; and "The Chinaberry Tree" in 1933.

Among the outstanding Negro educators and scholars of the period are William E. B. DuBois, Mordecai W. Johnson, Alain Locke, Channing H. Tobias, Kelly Miller, Ernest E. Just, and others.

Significant contributions were made in the 1920's and 1930's in other fields also. In the entertainment world,(8) successful musical comedies were written and produced. Popular Negro entertainers and stage personalities such as Charles Gilpin, Jules Bledsoe, Richard B. Harrison, Florence Mills, Bill Robinson, Louis Armstrong, Duke Ellington, and many others were enthusiastically received.

Negro musicians and concert artists were greeted with acclaim. Three of the most popular and widely known were Roland Hayes, tenor, Marian Anderson, contralto, and Paul Robeson, baritone. All these won national and international recognition, and were numbered among the top ten most highly paid concert artists in America.(9) There were others of note, who, while not attaining the prominence of the above group, were outstanding. The most highly recognized Negro composer of serious music during the 1930's was William Grant Still who composed for motion pictures and radio. His symphonies were performed by some of the foremost orchestras of the United States. He was named as one of the four leading composers of America, and was commissioned to write a work for the New York World's Fair of 1939. Harry T. Burleigh, R. Nathaniel Dett, Carl Diton, and J. Rosamond Johnson made lasting contributions through the writing and editing of Negro spirituals and other music.

In architecture and engineering two names stand out, even though the Negro became outstanding in business and industry primarily in the separate economy of the Negro world. Archie A. Alexander, in spite of efforts by the school to dissuade him, was trained at the State University of Iowa Engineering School, and was selected the outstanding graduate of the Class of 1912. He built bridges, airports, and the three-million dollar Whitehurst Freeway in Washington, D. C. Paul Williams, the most outstanding Negro architect, specialized in office buildings; however, he planned luxury homes for numerous prominent Hollywood figures.

In the field of science, the name of Ernest E. Just won great respect. He was highly regarded as a scholar, and was once elected vice-president of the American Zoological Society. He published numerous scientific papers, two highly regarded books, and was active in national and international scientific associations.

In the sports world, an impressive list might be drawn even though during this period Negroes had not yet been accepted in major league baseball. In boxing, the name of Joe Louis dominated the scene. In track, several names stand out. Eddie Tolan and Ralph Metcalfe gained world fame at the 1932 Olympic games. In 1936, Jesse Owens, who had come into prominence at Ohio State University, triumphed as a member of the United States Olympic team at the Olympic games in Berlin. Adolph Hitler was present to see Owens establish himself as the world's fastest runner and one of the greatest track athletes in history.

---

[8] Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard - presents additional information about these and others.

[9] Ibid.

The Negro in the Depression

The economic ills of the Negro worsened as the Great Depression struck. Even during the prosperous "twenties", when gains were made in other areas, pockets of unemployment and want existed particularly among Negro groups. The depressed conditions among many farmers in the South were made even worse by the attacks of the boll weevil. The conditions of this group, as well as that of many engaged in textiles, coal mining, and shipbuilding, were poor even when the economy was at its peak.

With the onslaught of the Great Depression, Negroes suffered even more. They were the first to lose their jobs as employment dropped, for pressures were exerted to have the jobs they retained transferred to whites. Even when employment was maintained, starvation wages were paid.(10) These factors were particularly devastating, for unlike many unemployed whites, Negroes had a small or non-existent reserve of capital on which to fall in the crisis. By 1935, one out of every four Negroes in the United States was on relief. The greatest suffering was found in urban communities. For example, in Atlanta, sixty-five per cent of the Negroes were on public relief; while in Norfolk, Virginia, the figure was eighty per cent.

New Political Forces and Realignment of the Negro

The powerful forces and revolutionary changes of the 1920's and 1930's brought about a political resurgence and realignment of the Negro. Formidable Negro voting power resulted from the mass migration northward and the concentration of Negroes in the cities. By 1930, eighty-eight per cent of northern Negroes resided in cities. The election of Oscar DePriest of Chicago to the United States House of Representatives in 1928 on the Republican ticket demonstrated the political potentialities of the Negro. It also represented the return of the Negro to the United States Congress, and the first time in United States history that a Negro had been elected to that body from a northern congressional district.

One of the most unexpected results of this upsurge in political power, however, was the transfer of the Negro vote from the Republicans where it had been for three generations. This trend gained momentum as disillusionment with the Republican Party grew. Increasingly, the Republicans replaced Negro party leaders in the South with whites and, at the same time, failed to materially improve the economic plight of the Negro. These factors, together with a revolution of basic party principles in terms of the needs of Negroes, played a major role in the transfer of support. Nevertheless, the revolutionary change was not too evident in 1932 in spite of dissatisfaction with the Hoover policies. In Chicago, for example, the Negro wards gave Roosevelt only twenty-three per cent of their votes, and in Detroit only about thirty-three per cent. Yet, in 1934, Arthur W. Mitchell of Chicago, running on the Democratic ticket, replaced Oscar DePriest and was the first Negro Democrat to sit in Congress. But this time the trend was obvious for Detroit gave Roosevelt over sixty-six per cent of its Negro vote, and Chicago over forty-nine per cent.

---

[10] Based upon reports to the United States Employment Service, it was shown that wages as low as $3 to $5 per week were paid domestics even in the North.

The Negro and the New Deal

The forces responsible for the shift of party allegiance were the dramatic manner in which the New Deal measures were formulated, and the way in which Negroes were recognized by the Roosevelt Administration. The number of Negroes in advisory positions in government agencies during the New Deal is impressive. This group which came to be called Roosevelt's Black Cabinet included, among many others, Robert C. Weaver who was the first Negro to serve as racial advisor in the Department of Interior. He served also in the Federal Housing Authority, the Office of Emergency Management, and the War Manpower Commission. William H. Hastie, a brilliant lawyer and Howard University Law School Dean, became Assistant Solicitor in the Department of Interior. He was appointed U. S. District Judge for the Virgin Islands, and later Civilian Aide to the Secretary of War. In 1946, Judge Hastie was appointed Governor of the Virgin Islands, and three years later was named to the bench of the Third United States Court of Appeals. This represented the highest level in the federal judiciary to which a Negro had ever been appointed. Mrs. Mary McLeod Bethune, who founded and served as President of Bethune-Cookman College, was prominent as Director of the Division of Negro Affairs of the National Youth Administration. Lawrence Oxley was Chief of the Division of Negro Labor in the Department of Labor. Edgar Brown was named adviser on Negro Affairs in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and William J. Trent was racial adviser in the Department of Interior.

The role of "Adviser on Negro Affairs" was not always a satisfying one. Yet, it was a step toward inclusion in the nation's highest affairs, and it led to an expansion in the number of Negroes in federal employment from about 50,000 in 1933 to nearly 200,000 in 1946.

Negroes gained benefits from many of the measures of the New Deal to provide relief, recovery, and reform for the nation. For example, in the N. Y. A. and C. C. C. programs, 10% and 13%, respectively, of those enrolled were Negroes. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, following the earlier organization in 1935 of the C. I. O. Labor Union, substantially benefited Negro labor.

The years and changes indicated above made the late 1930's a period of somewhat less despair and pessimism than the early 1930's, when the income of the Negro wage earner was a mere third of that of white workers. However, much long-range progress remained to be made. Too many Negroes had relief but no jobs, and segregation still had a firm grip on much of the nation. The end of the 1930's found much of the important legislation and many of the fundamental court decisions which involved improving the status of the Negro yet to be made. Nevertheless, some progress had been made; some ground had been gained.

UNIT VIII: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard. New York: Random House, Inc. 1961.

Butcher, Margaret J. The Negro in American Culture. New York: New American Library. 1956.

Degler, Carl N. Out of Our Past. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers. 1959.

Embree, Edwin R. Brown Americans. New York: The Viking Press. 1943.

Frazier, E. Franklin. The Negro in the United States. 1949.

Locke, Alain, (ed.). The New Negro: Albert and Charles Boni Publishers. 1925.

Myrdal, Gunnar. An American Dilemma. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers. 1944.

Redding, Saunders. Lonesome Road: Story of the Negro in America. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc 1958.

Reid, Ira D. "Negro Movements and Messiahs," Phylon. 1949, pages 362-369.

Ross, A. M. "Negro Worker in the Depression," Social Forces. May, 1940, pages 550-551; 553-555.

Rutledge, O. "Negro and the New Deal," South Atlantic Quarterly. July, 1940, pages 281-289.

Wright, Marion T. "Negro Youth and the Federal Emergency Programs: C. C. C. and N. Y. A.," Journal of Negro Education, IX. July, 1940.

Caliver, Ambrose. Fifty Years of Progress in Public Education of Negroes. Pittsburgh. Pittsburgh Courier. May 20, 1950.

Work, Monroe, W. The Negro Year Book 1937-1938. Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. New Year Book Publishing Company. 1937.

Note: Composed, printed, and bound by the -
Tuskegee Institute Press
Tuskegee Institute, Alabama

UNIT IX: AN ERA OF TOTALITARIAN AGGRESSION

1931-1946

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT IX: AN ERA OF TOTALITARIAN AGGRESSION, 1931-1946

Introduction

When collective security efforts failed to check Italian, German, and Japanese aggression; and when the inadequacy of a policy of American isolation was clearly demonstrated, American citizens - including Negro Americans - viewed the trend of international events toward a second world war with considerable concern. The mobilization of the nation in the defense effort and its involvement in World War II, created shortages and pressures which enabled Negro citizens to demand fuller participation in the total life of the nation. Largely as a result of these pressures and the Negro's demand, his position in American society was greatly improved. For the first time, Negroes were accepted in large numbers in industry and in the armed forces, but not without some reluctance based on deep-rooted racial prejudice. In spite of a splendid record in every defense field in which Negroes were permitted to participate, they were still compelled to fight against racial stereotyping.

The Negro in Defense Industries

By 1940, the United States recognized the importance of its stake in the outcome of British and French resistance to totalitarian aggression, and moved to bolster moral support with material aid. The nation, therefore, moved toward its appointed role as the arsenal of democracy. Not only was the production of existing defense plants accelerated, but new plants and industries were also established to provide aid to the other democracies, and to prepare United States forces for possible military involvement.

In spite of the heavy demands for labor that rapid industrial expansion created, skilled Negro workers were often rebuffed when they sought employment in defense industries. A large reservoir of skilled Negro workers, including electricians, toolmakers, machinists, millwrights, steamfitters, and students completing trade and industrial courses were largely ignored and denied job opportunities in many defense industries. The expanding aircraft industry, which needed approximately a quarter of a million new workers, illustrated this early refusal to utilize skilled Negro workers. The President of North American Aviation, though greatly in need of additional workers declared: "Regardless of their training as aircraft workers, we will not employ Negroes in North American Plants. It is against company policy."

The result of such policies was widespread discrimination against Negroes in industry. Federal government policy opposed to discrimination against Negroes was often not implemented. Disillusioned by continued inactivity on the part of the Administration, a March-on-Washington Committee was organized under the leadership of A. Phillip Randolph, President of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters. It was only after President Franklin D. Roosevelt, in a conference with Randolph, agreed to issue an executive order banning discrimination in defense industries that the March-on-Washington was cancelled. Executive Order 8802, issued

June 25, 1941, condemned discrimination, ordered all federal departments to implement non-discriminatory policies, and provided for the insertion of a non-discriminatory clause in all government contracts.

The period of the war emergency resulted in significant changes in the employment pattern of Negroes. The large percentage of Negroes who were employed during the "thirties" were absorbed into the armed forces or the defense industries. Although efforts to enforce Executive Order 8802 were never entirely satisfactory, Negro workers ultimately comprised more than eight per cent of the workers in war industries. Another significant trend was apparent in the federal civil service. The number of Negroes in federal employment increased from approximately ten per cent in 1938 to approximately twenty per cent at the close of the War. Moreover, an increasing number of Negroes were employed in clerical and professional positions; in 1945, less than forty per cent were classified as custodial workers in compared with ninety per cent in 1938.

During this period, 1931-1946, Negro workers joined labor unions in in increasingly large numbers. By 1945, there were 1,250,000 Negro labor union members as compared with 180,000 in 1935. One of the most important reasons for increased union membership among Negroes was the concerted drive by labor after 1935 to organize the mass-production industries in which large numbers of Negroes were employed. Another significant reason for the increase was broader employment opportunities for Negroes in unionized trades during the war years.

The Negro in the Armed Forces

In 1939, when the Nazi attack on Poland precipitated World War II, the United States took immediate steps to strengthen and expand her defenses. The expansion of the armed forces was of initial importance. At this time, Negro soldiers were organized in segregated units as they had been since the Civil War, and plans for expansion revealed no indication of a change in this policy. Although the Selective Service Act of 1940, containing Section IVa, known as the Burke-Wadswoth Amendment, prohibited discrimination in the selection and training of all recruits under Selective Service, the War Department in a statement of October 9, 1940, announced the policy which it followed throughout World War II. This statement indicated that the strength of Negro personnel in the Army would be maintained on the general basis of the proportion of the Negro population of the country, and that "the policy of the War Department is not to intermingle colored and white enlisted men in the same regimental organizations. This policy has been proven satisfactory over a long period of years and to make changes would produce situations destructive to the morale and detrimental to the preparations for national defense." Although some experiments demonstrated that under certain conditions, segregation could be modified without friction and with considerable gain in military efficiency, the Army continued its practice of segregation of Negroes until January, 1950, when Special Regulations 600-629-1 removed the color bar from all Army jobs and schools, abolished all racial quotas, and provided for the assignment of a Negro to any unit of the Army that his qualifications merit, and as military considerations indicate. Segregated units were still maintained, but would presumably decline in number and strength since a Negro no longer had to serve in a segregated unit only.

The Air Force maintained the same policy on Negro manpower as did the Army. Negroes were utilized mainly in segregated units with limited job opportunities. Except for three all Negro units - a fighter squadron, a fighter group, and a bombardment group - Negroes in the Air Force were used chiefly in service capacities, and for heavy-duty work regardless of their individual skills and aptitudes. In spite of the realization of the waste of abilities and skills, it was believed that segregation had to be maintained because of social custom, and because of possible difficulties between white and Negro airmen if they were placed in the same unit. It was not until June, 1949, that a new program was instituted. It abolished enlistment quotas, job restrictions, and much of the segregation for Negroes, but did allow for the continued existence of some all-Negro units. The three all-Negro combat units were disbanded, and their personnel reassigned.

The policies and practices of the Navy with regard to the utilization of Negro manpower during the period 1931-1946 ran the gamut from total exclusion to integration. In 1931, Negroes were excluded entirely from the Navy as they had been since the end of World War I; in 1932, Negroes were again recruited, but only in the messmen's branch; in 1942, the Navy announced that Negroes would be enlisted for general services as well as for mess attendants. The general service recruits, however, were trained in segregated camps and schools, used in segregated units, and limited in assignments to shore installations and harbor craft. In 1944, an experiment in which Negroes were assigned to twenty-five auxiliary ships on a completely integrated basis proved that Negroes could be placed in white crews without difficulty. By July, 1945, all segregated camps and schools were abolished, and in February, 1946, the Navy abolished segregation entirely; and since then, general service assignments have been open to Negroes without restriction.

Despite problems of segregation and discrimination, approximately 1,174,000 Negro men and women served in the armed forces. Serving in the women's auxiliary forces were 3,902 women, 115 of whom won commissions. Although the appointment of Negroes to high ranking positions was nominal, the appointment of Colonel Benjamin O. Davis, Sr. to Brigadier General, and of Major Campbell C. Johnson as Executive Assistant to the Director of Selective Service, presaged a change in the rigid pattern of excluding Negroes from responsible positions.

Approximately, 497,000 Negroes served in foreign theatres of war where they participated in many of the major engagements. The 761st Tank Battalion saw distinguished service in the Battle of the Bulge; the 92nd Division received many citations and decorations for valor for its part in the African and Italian campaigns; the 49th Pursuit Squadron, activated as the first all-Negro air unit, served in the Mediterranean theatre. In the Pacific theatre, Negro troops of the 96th Engineer Regiment fought in New Guinea, and the 93rd Division, a combat unit, served in the Solomons. The majority of Negroes were concentrated in service type rather than in combat units; in some instances, combat and engineering duties were combined as in the case of Negro troops who worked on the construction of the Ledo Road in the Orient.

In addition to the Army and the Air Force, about 200,000 Negroes served in the Navy, Coast Guard, and the Merchant Marine during the war.

Although the Navy was reluctant to accept Negroes in all Branches, by 1946, when the Navy abolished segregation and opened general service assignments to Negroes without restriction, there were 19,102 Negroes in the Navy. The Coast Guard was the first Branch of the Navy to commission Negroes as officers and to utilize their skills and abilities in every phase of its work. The Merchant Marine was the only fully integrated service during the entire war period. Four of the approximately 24,000 Negroes in this service were advanced to the rank of captain. Moreover, eighteen Liberty ships were named for prominent Negroes, and four for Negro colleges.

Negroes in Other Activities Related to National Defense

The American Red Cross and the United Service Organization, which was organized in 1941, made a significant and necessary contribution to the success of the war effort. Negroes served in many capacities with the Red Cross at home and abroad where they did much to bolster the morale of the Negro soldier, and to help him meet some of his personal problems. The Red Cross, however, was severely criticized by Negroes for its initial policy of refusing to accept blood from Negro donors for the blood banks which it established. This policy was later modified and blood from Negro donors was accepted on a segregated basis. Eventually, the War Department accepted responsibility for the policy after persistent protest by Negroes. Ironically, it was a Negro, Dr. Charles Richard Drew, the outstanding world authority on "banked blood," whose services the nation utilized in the collection of blood plasma for the Army. Dr. Drew was later "loaned" to Britain to assist in the establishment of blood banks for that nation.

The United Service Organization, like the Red Cross, contributed in many ways to provide recreation and entertainment for service men, usually by establishing U. S. O. Clubs on bases and in cities near the bases. Before the end of the War, nearly 300 U. S. O. Clubs were staffed by Negro workers and volunteers. In March, 1941, the U. S. O. Camp Show Project was organized; and two years later, the first Negro overseas unit toured the Caribbean.

Whereas the Red Cross and the United Service Organization provided services for the fighting men, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration was established in November, 1943, to help civilians in war ravaged areas. The forty-four united and associated nations who created this agency realized that civilians in war areas especially, required help in overcoming the miseries of war and in rebuilding for peace. Of the many Negroes who worked with this organization, two - Dr. R. O. Lanier and Dr. Robert C. Weaver - served in responsible administrative positions. Dr. Lanier was appointed Assistant Administrator in the Bureau of Areas, a policy co-ordinating bureau; Dr. Weaver, who had been Head of the Negro Division of the War Manpower Commission during the War, was appointed an assistant in the UNRRA Mission in the Ukraine in 1946.

Scientists as well as soldiers were called upon to contribute to the war effort between 1941 and 1946. Several Negro scientists shared in this effort. Dr. Charles W. Buggs engaged in major research in the treatment of wound infection and burns. Dr. Charles Drew developed methods and techniques essential to the establishment of blood banks. Among the many scientists employed for the development of the atomic bomb and other instruments of war, were several Negro scientists.

The era of totalitarian aggression was a history-making epoch with tremendous impact upon American foreign relations and American domestic development. Long before 1946, the need for increased co-operation with other nations of the world was apparent. The United States accepted the challenge and emerged from the war in a new role as leader in the struggle for post-war security. Within the nation, the war period contributed significantly to the recognition of many contradictions in the American democratic experiment which required resolution. By the end of the period, a new impetus had been given to the long crusade for civil rights and equality for all Americans, and for the inclusion of Negro Americans in the total life of the nation.

UNIT IX: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Hill, T. Arnold. The Negro and Economic Reconstruction. Washington. 1937.

Johnson, James Weldon. Along This Way. New York. 1933.

Kiplinger, W. M. Washington Is Like That. New York. 1942.

Hayes, Laurence J. W. The Negro Federal Government Worker. Washington. 1941.

Johnson, Charles S. The Economic Status of the Negro. Nashville. 1933.

Weaver, Robert C. Negro Labor, A National Problem. New York. 1946.

Cayton, Horace and Mitchell, George S. Black Workers and the New Unions. Chapel Hill. 1939.

Schoell, Franck L. Histoire de la race noire aux Etats-Unis du XVII siecle a nos jours. Paris. 1959.

Ginsberg, Eli at al. The Negro Potential. New York. 1956.

Murray, Florence. The Negro Handbook. New York. 1946.

Schoenfeld, Seymour J. The Negro in the Armed Forces. Washington. 1945.

White, Walter. A Rising Wind. New York. 1945.

UNIT X: CHALLENGES OF A WORLD IN REVOLUTION

1946-1963

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

UNIT X: CHALLENGES OF A WORLD IN REVOLUTION, 1946-1963

Introduction

The world during the period 1946-1963 may be accurately described as a world in revolution. In many African and Asian countries, these changes have assumed the form of nationalistic movements for self-determination. In many Latin American countries and in the United States, the movement has assumed the form of a social and economic revolution designed to define democracy in social and economic terms as well as in political terms. The Negro American in this age of social change and ferment, has utilized a wide variety of techniques to acquire political and economic equality and full participation in the mainstream of his country's life.

At the present time, notable success can be discerned in the American social revolution of the post-war decade. Direct protest and appeals to the courts have resulted in a greatly increased concern for the protection of minority rights. Both have helped to educate the American people to the fact that a strong, democratic nation must give full recognition and acceptance to all of its citizens and that competence and intelligence, rather than race, should determine the limits for the role of the individual in American life.

America's new role as the leader of the free-world and the rising importance of newly created non-white nations have been major considerations in the course and progress of the social revolution in post-war America. Unquestionably, the rise of the new African and Asian nations during the past two decades has inspired American Negroes in their quest for equality and human dignity. Moreover, the United States as world leader has been increasingly the focus of attention as a representative of democracy at work. In the area of race relations particularly, improvement in the treatment of minority groups has been essential to the maintenance of American prestige and influence abroad. Other nations expect the United States to live up to her professed ideals. These expectations at the international level and the persistence of the Negro in forcing the progress of American democracy at home have been major factors in the progress of the Negro to full citizenship in the United States since 1946.

The Supreme Court and the Negro

A comparison of the role of the Negro in American life in 1946 and in 1936 reveals that significant gains have been made. The accelerated progress of the period is the result of many interacting forces and factors, including the influence of the New Deal Reform movement, the continued urbanization of the Negro population with a resultant increase in political and economic power, the enlarged concern of many interested groups regarding minority rights, the disinclination of the Negro to accept the status quo, and the international pressures resulting from American world leadership.

Despite the tremendous influence exerted by these forces, it has been the United States Supreme Court which has played the key role in the Negro's advancement. Throughout this period the Court has consistently interpreted the Fourteenth Amendment to give it the meaning and to extend the protection originally intended by the framers. Action by the Court in barring racial and religious discrimination in public employment, housing, education and recreation constitutes a significant step in advancement toward full citizenship for the Negro.

Two groups of decisions by the Supreme Court relating to the participation of Negroes in white primaries and to school segregation clearly illustrate the essential role of the Court in the progress of the Negro in the past two decades. Southern efforts to nullify Negro suffrage included establishment of the Democratic white primary from which Negro voters were excluded. Exclusion from the primary, the only election of any significance in the one-party Democratic South, meant that Negro voters would be effectively eliminated from southern politics. A group of decisions involving the white primary culminated in the decision of Smith vs. Allwright in 1954, in which the Court held that the primary is an integral part of the state election machinery from which qualified Negro voters can not be excluded.

Similarly, action by the Supreme Court was necessary to extend the principle of equal educational opportunities. Two lines of interpretation were followed by the Court. At first, a closer scrutiny was given to educational facilities provided for Negroes under the "separate but equal" doctrine, and the Court demanded a greater degree of equality for separate facilities than had previously prevailed. Increasingly, however, the Court was brought to the position that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal and thus unconstitutional. This later doctrine was pronounced in the celebrated segregation cases of 1954 which included the case of Brown vs. Board of Education. In the following year, school districts with segregated educational facilities were instructed to desegregate "with all deliberate speed".

In addition to favorable Court action with regard to the white primary and segregated education, marked advance was registered in the areas of discrimination in interstate travel and residential segregation under restrictive covenants. By 1963, the high tribunal had successfully challenged discrimination in these areas also.

Congress, State Legislatures and the Negro

Negro membership in and action by legislatures, state and federal, have been responsible for much of the advance toward full citizenship made by Negroes during the past twenty years. The United States Congress has moved more slowly than the Federal Judiciary in this respect, but some progress has been registered. Enactment of civil rights legislation in 1957 and 1960, after a fierce intra-party fight by the Democrats, has given some measure of protection to the Negro voter against discriminatory practices. The Civil Rights Commission, established under the provisions of the Act of 1957, has investigated complaints of violations of Negro voting rights and has forced some southern jurisdictions to register, under court order, Negro voters unlawfully denied the ballot.

The number of Negro legislators, state and federal, has increased significantly since 1946. The number of Negroes in the House of Representatives has increased from one in 1930 to five in 1963, the largest number of Negro representatives that has sat in the House at one time since the Reconstruction Era. These include Adam Clayton Powell and William Dawson, representing congressional districts in New York City and Chicago respectively and the relative newcomers, Charles Diggs, Robert Nix, and Augustus Hawkins respectively from Detroit, Philadelphia and Los Angeles. Congressmen Powell and Dawson, both Democrats, because of long seniority hold chairmanships of the powerful House Education and Labor Committee and of the House Government Operations Committee. In addition, an increasing number of Negroes have sought and been elected to state legislative bodies, including the Georgian legislature to which Leroy Johnson, the first Negro elected to a Georgia legislature in more than ninety-two years, was elected as a state senator.

At the state level, a great deal of legislation has been enacted for the protection of civil rights. Some states, under their police powers, have banned private discrimination in certain areas. By 1962, twenty states containing sixty per cent of the United States population and nearly forty per cent of the Negro population had enacted enforceable fair employment practices acts. Two others, Indiana and Ohio, enacted fair employment practices laws of the milder type; and twenty-two states, as well as the District of Columbia, have legislation on the statute books forbidding discrimination in places of public accommodation.

Negroes have been elected to a large number of state executive and judicial positions as well as to the legislatures. In a recent three-year span, 1960-1962, Otis Smith was elected Michigan's Auditor General, Gerald A. Lamb was elected Treasurer of Connecticut, and Edward M. Brooke was elected Attorney-General of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. These political victories indicate the wide acceptance of Negro political candidates by northern electorates for state officers. This political trend perhaps holds great significance for Negro aspirants to seats in the United States Senate.

The Federal Executive and the Negro

The federal executive has played a relatively active role in the post-war social revolution which has advanced Negro rights. This activity is revealed in two general areas: integration of the armed forces and appointment of Negroes to high level executive and judicial positions. The perennial controversy regarding segregated units in the armed forces was finally ended with the issuance of an Executive Order (9981) by President Truman which banned segregation and discrimination of citizens who serve in the armed forces. This action has ended segregation and the most obvious forms of discrimination in all branches of the armed forces, making it possible for Negroes today to be eligible for assignments in virtually all branches of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. Moreover, an increasing number of Negro candidates have been admitted to the service academies, with a total of fourteen at West Point, twelve at Annapolis, and twelve at Denver, as of 1962.

For many years, appointment of Negroes in the Foreign Service was extremely limited. Traditionally, a few Negroes had been appointed to represent the United States in some of the "Negro Republics." During the years since 1946, however, the number of Negroes serving in the Foreign Service has increased. In 1962, thirty-five Negroes held responsible posts in the Foreign Service and Foreign Service Reserve. Three of these are chiefs of missions: Clifton R. Wharton, Ambassador to Norway; Mercer Cook, Ambassador to Niger; and Carl T. Rowan, Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for Public Affairs, has been nominated and recently confirmed as Ambassador to Finland.

In addition to high-level positions in the Foreign Service of the United States, Negroes participated in the establishment of the United Nations Organization and in the operation of its programs. Three Negroes - Mary M. Bethune, Walter White, and W. E. B. Du Bois - served as official observers at the San Francisco Conference at which the United Nations was organized. Today, the highest ranking American official in the United Nations is a Negro, Dr. Ralph [illegible]. Bunche, Under-Secretary of the organization. Succeeding Count Folke Bernadotte as Mediator in the Arab-Israeli dispute after his assassination by Jewish terrorists in 1948, Dr. Bunche succeeded in effecting a truce between the belligerents. For this contribution to world peace, he was later awarded the Nobel Peace Prize, September 22, 1950.

High level appointment of Negroes in the executive and judicial branches have included appointments at the sub-cabinet level in the Departments of Labor and State. President Eisenhower appointed J. Ernest Wilkins, Assistant Secretary of Labor in 1957; he was succeeded by George E. Weaver under the Democrats. Carl T. Rowan was appointed to a sub-cabinet post in the State Department. The first appointment of a Negro to a federal regulatory agency came in 1962 when A. Leon Higginbotham was named to the Federal Trade Commission. Precedent-breaking appointments were made by the Kennedy Administration to the Federal Judiciary. Two Negroes were appointed United States Attorneys, and two were named to the United States District Court bench, the first Negro district judges ever appointed to serve in the continental United States. Moreover, Thurgood Marshall, long time Chief Counsel for the N.A.A.C.P., was appointed to a higher bench, the Federal Court of Appeals bench, despite a demonstration of opposition by some southern members of the Senate Judiciary Committee.

Negro Protest and Pressure, 1946-1963

Protest and pressure by Negro organizations and liberal white groups have been responsible for much of the progress made by Negroes toward full citizenship. Most effective has been the work of the N.A.A.C.P. during this period, initially under the leadership of Walter White, Executive Secretary, and his successor, the present incumbent, Roy Wilkins. The organization has continued to utilize mainly court litigation to gain protection and rights for Negroes. Its most dramatic victory came with the favorable Supreme Court decision in the school segregation cases in 1954, which climaxed more than thirty years of effort by the organization to gain American commitment to equal educational opportunities for all. The Urban League, organized in 1910, continued its work primarily among urban Negroes, and in the areas of industrial relations, vocational service and housing.

More recently, a new type of Negro protest movement has appeared in the struggle for equal rights. This movement has effectively utilized the Ghandian principles of non-violent resistance and mass demonstrations to dramatize and publicize the evils of discrimination and segregation. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and his supporters have been the major advocates of this approach. Perhaps the most successful organizations adopting these techniques have been the Montgomery Improvement Association (an outgrowth of the bus segregation controversy in Montgomery, Alabama), the Congress of Racial Equality, and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference. These protest organizations have introduced the terms "sit-in" and "kneel-in" into the popular vocabulary. Moreover, they have inspired a whole generation of Negro college youth to dedicate their lives, freedom, and future to the crusade for human dignity. The unity of purpose which this phase of the Negro protest movement has reflected and the sense of mission and sacrifice which it has inspired have brought alarm and deep concern to the South regarding the security of the "southern way of life."

While the protest movements and organizations discussed above are largely Negro in composition, it is important to observe the large measure of support they have received from white humanitarians and liberals. It appears that a growing number of whites, concerned with the threat to human freedom, are participating at the grass-roots level rather than merely at the policy-making level. This means that, to a large degree, the protest movement of the past five years has become increasingly interracial in character with liberal white ministers, and college students working along with Negroes on the firing lines of racial conflict.

For many years, several religious groups have given support to movements directed toward improvement of conditions for minority groups. The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, the American Friends Service Committee, the American Jewish Committee, the National Conference of Christians and Jews, and the Catholic Interracial Council have all played significant roles in the Negro's struggle for equality.

The role of the Negro press should not be overlooked. The Negro press, always a crusading organ, did much to shape the public image of the Negro during the years under discussion. During this period, there were, perhaps, one hundred and fifty Negro newspapers, largely weeklies. Most influential among these are: the *Atlanta Daily World*, the *Pittsburgh Courier*, the *Amsterdam News*, the *Afro-American*, and the *Chicago Defender*.

The Negro Artist and Intellectual

American Negroes, as other ethnic groups, have contributed to the culture of America. The past twenty years have witnessed a tremendous growth in the Negro middle-class which has assumed the same basic characteristics and revealed the same aspirations as those of its white counterpart. As the middle class has grown, so too has its interest in and support of the arts and sciences. This, together with the general lowering of barriers and broadening of opportunities for Negroes which have marked the years since World War II, has resulted in the appearance of a number of first-rate Negro artists and scholars whose efforts have considerably enriched American culture.

Most prominent among the Negro painters are Horace Pippin, William Scott, Jacob Lawrence, and Lois Jones, all of whom have won numerous medals and awards at national and international showings. Pippin, one of the self taught primitives, perhaps has a larger number of canvases on exhibit than any other Negro painter. William Scott was commissioned to paint the murals in the Recorder of Deeds Building here in our own city, Washington, D. C. Jacob Lawrence, probably the most prominent Negro painter, has dedicated his talents to telling the story of the Negro in America. One of his best known works is "The Negro Migration."

Since 1945, many new opportunities have been opened to Negro artists in the performing arts. They have had access to hundreds of stages in the United States and Canada not available to them prior to the end of World War II. The opening of the stage of the Metropolitan Opera Company to such established artists as Marian Anderson, Robert McFerren, Mattiwilda Dobbs, and Gloria Davy during the fifties, and the proffer of leading operatic roles in television productions and recording contracts give Negro concert artists a larger audience. This resulted in their recognition as competent, first-rate American artists, not merely Negro artists.

During the 1950's, "serious music" was still dominated by the established Negro artists, Marian Anderson, Dorothy Maynor, and Roland Hayes, as it was during the preceding two decades. Miss Anderson, the famous contralto, now gave fewer concerts, but her fame was never greater than in 1958 when she successfully toured the Orient under the auspices of the State Department. While still active, Dorothy Maynor and Roland Hayes curtailed their concert activities. One of the great talents which was largely silenced was Paul Robeson, whose extreme leftist views and pronouncements brought him the disfavor of both white and Negro admirers.

Though established concert stars dominated "serious music" among Negroes in the early fifties, a group of younger and new artists appeared who matured and gained prominence in this decade. Most prominent among these have been Adele Addison, Robert McFerren, Carol Bryce, Gloria Davy, Mattiwilda Dobbs, Leontyne Price, and William Warfield. Perhaps the most famous of these is Leontyne Price whose work with the Metropolitan Opera Company, and in television productions has brought her a larger audience than many of the other artists. Taken as a group, these singers were well-trained at leading conservatories, or by outstanding teachers in the Northeast. Nearly all of them are college and professional school graduates, and many have had successful and extended European tours before gaining full recognition in the United States. Most of them have appeared as guest artists with the leading symphony orchestras in the East.

Contrary to the wide recognition given to Negro singers, Negro instrumentalists and composers have been unable to win similar recognition. Phillipa D. Schuyler, a pianist and an exception, gained the widest recognition, largely because of her image as a child prodigy who gave her first concert at the age of ten, and had her composition performed by the New York Symphony Orchestra when she was only twelve years old. Dean Dixon, recognized as an outstanding conductor, conducted the NBC Symphony Orchestra during the summer season of 1941, and appeared as guest conductor with other famous symphony orchestras. Since there was no permanent post available for him in the United States, he migrated to Sweden where he accepted a permanent post as conductor of the Gothenburg Symphony Orchestra, serving also as director of classical music for Radio KOLN in West Germany. William G. Still and William L. Dawson, whose major works belong to the preceding period, however, remained productive after 1945.

Since 1945, a large number of Negro artists have received wide acclaim in the field of jazz and related popular music. Negro pre-eminence in this area which was recognized in the 1930's was maintained in the period 1946-1963. Historians of jazz generally concede that Negro, rather than white musicians, have been the principal innovators responsible for the development of "modern jazz". Included in this talented group of Negro musicians are Thelonius Monk, Charlie Parker, Dizzy Gillespie, Miles Davis, and Kenneth Clarke. Their work has helped give jazz a respectability and an acceptability which it lacked prior to 1945, resulting sometimes in "jazz concerts" and guest appearances of jazzmen with ranking American symphonic orchestras. Recognizing the international appeal of jazz and the opportunity to display evidence of the accomplishments of Negro Americans, the United States Government has sponsored worldwide tours of several groups of Negro jazzmen as part of the cultural exchange program. In 1957, for example, Dizzy Gillespie and his group were sent on tour in the East, and in Latin America.

The "modern jazzmen" as a group differ significantly from early Negro jazzmen. One major difference is in origins for most of them now come from large, urban Northern areas rather than from the Deep South and "bayou country" of jazz legend. A few of them are college-trained, and some come from Negro bourgeois backgrounds, which have provided a security, and musical opportunities unavailable to older Negro jazzmen. Moreover, most of them have had some serious study and training for their profession, and are therefore musically literate.

Several Negroes have gained prominence in the scientific fields. Percy Julian and Lloyd Hall became outstanding in the field of industrial chemistry. In the field of the medical sciences, Dr. Charles R. Drew gained prominence for his work with the blood bank, and in surgical shock procedures. Dr. William A. Hinton developed the Hinton test for syphilis. Dr. Louis Wright, a member of the American College of Surgeons, was one of the nation's outstanding surgeons.

The present generation of Negro scholars has found a national audience as a result of their productions. Most productive and widely known of the historians are John Hope Franklin, of the University of Chicago, Rayford W. Logan, of Howard University, and Charles H. Wesley, President of Central State College in Ohio. All three are outstanding authorities in the field of Negro history. The late E. Franklin Frazier, former president of the American Sociology Association, was an eminent and productive sociologist. His Black Bourgeoisie, although controversial, remains the best treatment of the Negro middle class. Three scholarly journals, the Journal of Negro History, the Journal of Negro Education, and Phylon, have been published for more than thirty years, and offer the scholar an opportunity to publish research on Negro problems and themes which, for many years, was rejected by other journals.

The Negro writer of the period 1946-1963 continued the productive activity which had characterized his efforts in the preceding period. While Arna Bontemps, Richard Wright, Sterling Brown, and other writers of the preceding period remained productive; a group of new, young writers began to gain public notice. The Negro author continued to deal predominantly with Negro problems and themes, admittedly an area which he knew best; however, absorption in race themes tended to limit both the range of his literacy contributions and his objectivity. At the opening of the period, Negro novelists were still writing mainly protest novels, novels which represented race protest and reaction to the patterns of discrimination and inequality in American society. Richard Wright, author of Native Son and Black Boy, was one of the first Negro novelists to fully explore the possibilities of the protest novel. Other outstanding authors of protest novels are Chester Himes, Willard Savoy, and William Gardner Smith. By the late 1940's when the protest novel lost much of its appeal to the reading public, Negro novelists turned increasingly to explore experiences in Negro life other than those rooted in race prejudice and conflict.

Moving into the mainstream of American literature in the 1950's, Negro authors tended to emphasize escapist themes or to write Negro novels which dealt with matters other than race conflict. The most representative and successful of the romantic novelists is Frank Yerby, the former college English instructor, who wrote a best-seller for seven consecutive years between 1945-1952. Avoiding race themes and strongly emphasizing the romantic, his works, The Foxes of Harrow, The Golden Hawk, and The Vixens, had a strong appeal to a national audience. Three of Yerby's novels were made into movies.

Ranking high among contemporary American writers are Willard Motley, Ann Petry, and Ralph Ellison. Motley's best known novels, Knock On Any Door, and Let No Man Write My Epitaph, were widely read. Ann Petry's best known book is a second novel, Country Place, which deals with life in a New England Town. Ralph Ellison won the National Book Award for 1953 with his first novel, Invisible Man. Perhaps the best biography writing by a Negro is the one of Benjamin Banneker, written by Shirley Graham. One of the most outstanding of the recent Negro writers is James Baldwin, an angry young man with a message. His best known book, a collection of essays entitled Nobody Knows My Name, is a treatment of the national and international implications of the American race problem. Baldwin concludes that the fate of white America is intimately bound up with and conditioned by the nature of its solution of the Negro problem in the United States.

Among the Negro poets of the period, Gwendolyn Brooks, Frank Marshall Davis, and Melvin Tolson, are easily the most outstanding. Gwendolyn Brooks' book of poetry, A Street in Bronzeville, won a Pulitzer Prize; and Davis' poem, "Dark Symphony," won the National Poetry Prize.

The Negro In Sports

During the period 1946-1963, Negro athletes participated more widely in amateur and professional sports than ever before, and the large number who excelled did much to change the image of the Negro in America. In amateur sports, such outstanding Negro athletes as Mel Whitfield, Harrison Dillard, John Thomas, Ralph Boston, Frank Budd, Wilma Rudolph, and Rafer Johnson became widely known for their achievement in track and field competition. Most of these, following the challenge of the famed Negro athlete, Jesse Owens, became Olympic champions in their chosen sport.

Perhaps the most spectacular gain for the Negro athlete has come in the area of professional sports. Prior to this period, professional sports, with the exception of boxing, was largely closed to Negroes. Negroes continued to dominate boxing, led by such popular champions as Joe Louis, Ray Robinson, and Henry Armstrong. By 1958, Negro boxers held world championship titles in six of the highest weight divisions of professional boxing. Organized baseball was largely closed to Negro players, and major league baseball was completely closed prior to 1947 when Branch Rickey, in the face of opposition, brought Jackie Robinson up to the Brooklyn Dodgers. Since that successful experiment, the number of Negro players has increased until in 1962, 80 of the approximately 450 major league ballplayers were Negroes. Moreover, many became outstanding stars with eight Negro players winning the most valuable player awards. In 1962, two distinctive honors came to Negro baseball players. Jackie Robinson was elected to the Baseball Hall of Fame, and Maury Wills set a new record of 104 stolen bases in a single season.

In professional basketball and football, the development has been much the same as in organized baseball. The number of Negro athletes has increased from a few established players to the point where every team in both sports now has several Negro players. During the past five years, these sports have produced Negro players who have become national stars. The exploits of Wilt Chamberlain, Elgin Baylor, and Oscar Robertson in professional basketball; and Lenny Moore, Jimmy Brown, and Roosevelt Greer in professional football are well known to all American sports lovers.

Two sports areas which remain difficult for Negro players to enter are golf and tennis. Negro players have participated little in either sport particularly at the professional level. The one notable exception has been Althea Gibson whose triumphs in tennis include winning the three most important championships in women's tennis in 1957.

UNIT X: SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard. Rinehart. 1959.

Blaustein, A. and Ferguson, Clarence, Jr. Desegregation and The Law. Rutgers University Press. 1957.

Carr, Robert K. Federal Protection of Civil Rights: Quest for a Sword. Ithaca: Cornell University Press. 1947.

Davie, Maurice. Negroes in American Society. McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc. 1949.

Embree, Edwin R. Brown Americans. The Viking Press. 1943.

Logan, Rayford W. The Negro and the Post War World. The Minorities Publishers. 1945.

President's Committees on Civil Rights. To Secure These Rights. Washington, D. C. 1947.

President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Forces. Freedom To Serve, 1950.

Rose, Arnold M. The Negro in Post War America. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai-B'rith. 1950.

Southern Regional Council. The Federal Executive and Civil Rights. January, 1961.

United States Information Service. The Negro American-A Progress Report. 1960.

Walker, Harry J. The Negro in American Life. Oxford Book Company. 1954.

Woodson, C. G. The Negro in Our History, Rev. ed. Washington Associated Publisher. 1945.

Ziegler, M. Desegregation and the Supreme Court. Boston: D. C. Heath. 1958.

CONCLUSION

The foregoing narrative of the Negro in the history of the United States, including the Colonial Period, covers more than four centuries.

Any account of this nature, therefore, must necessarily be highly selective. It indicates a record rich in achievement by Negro Americans and their intimate involvement in virtually every aspect of our national development.

This achievement is the more remarkable in view of the fact that until recent decades, segregation - de jure and de facto - has resulted in an enforced isolation of the Negro from the mainstream of American life.

It is to be hoped that the material in this bulletin will effect a fuller realization that contemporary American civilization is the product of the efforts and contributions of Negro citizens, as well as those of numerous other racial and national minorities which comprise our population.

This understanding will give the study and teaching of United States History a balance which it has previously lacked, and will aid both white and Negro Americans to better understand themselves and each other.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK—NOT FILMED

APPENDIX

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK-NOT FILMED

RESPONSIBLE CITIZENSHIP

American history is not just something to memorize or learn, it is a part of living - a record of past events that affect our present or future life. Our history is a living, dynamic subject because all of us, as human beings and citizens, are consciously, or unconsciously, playing a part in determining its course. We cannot successfully interpret the present without a knowledge and understanding of the past.

In pursuing the objectives of this bulletin, the teacher should use the material to help develop proper student attitudes and actions relative to citizenship. Properly used, it should help prepare all students for a more constructive, intelligent role as responsible citizens in our democracy. It should be stressed that the responsible citizen maintains his citizenship everywhere -- in the family, school, community, nation, and world.

The teacher should daily help all students to realize that the responsible citizen acquires and practices not only the "three R's" of education, but also the "three R's" of democratic living:

RESPECT FOR ONESELF

RESPECT FOR THE RIGHTS AND PROPERTY OF OTHERS

RESPECT FOR AUTHORITY

A CORRELATION CHART

This resource bulletin is basically designed for use in the teaching of American History, Grade 11, and should be utilized as instructional material to supplement and enrich the course throughout the year.

Preceding grade eleven, the role and contributions of all minority groups to the growth and progress of America should have been touched upon to a considerable extent in social studies courses, and it is to be expected that all subsequent courses will be further implemented by the resourceful teacher.

The following chart shows the ways in which The Negro in American History is correlated in the overall social studies curriculum for secondary schools.

A CORRELATION CHART: Ways In Which THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY Is Correlated In The Overall Social Studies Curriculum For Secondary Schools

Grades 7 - 12

GRADE LEVEL	COURSE TITLE	TRACK	EMPHASIS	COURSE TYPE—LENGTH
7	United States Geography	All	At this grade level the scope and sequence of the study of United States Geography readily yields to the integration of material from this bulletin. Students would find it interesting as well as informative to note the many accomplishments of George Washington Carver in the field of scientific research, especially those which have had a decided effect on the growth and use of certain agricultural products in the South, resulting ultimately in the manufacture of many new synthetics.	Required One Year
8	American History	All	Full use should be made of this bulletin throughout the school year, as the teacher selects those areas from the whole span of American history which are the most meaningful for his class. Biographic studies of famous Americans of color could be used to help students become acquainted with their lives and contributions. The accomplishments of Banneker, Douglass, Revels, Tubman, Washington, and others could well be studied in depth.	Required One Year
9	Ancient and Medieval History	H-R	A study of the significant and influential achievements of minority groups should be included as an integral part of this course which studies in depth the events, people, and facts which make up the connected and progressive story of human progress during ancient and medieval times. The history of the Negro should be correlated with the achievements of others. To facilitate this correlation, a study of the following events is suggested: (1) Negro influence and intermixture in Egypt, Assyria, Babylon, Greece and Rome; (2) the existence of great dynasties in Africa (Misi, Songhay, Manding or Melle), when the Roman Empire was at its zenith and during the Middle Ages.	Elective One Year
	Civics	R	Material from this bulletin, The Negro in American History, might well be included in a study of Civics when the content material is centered on a study of the structure and functions of the government of the United States. Here emphasis could be placed on events, or persons who have helped to make democracy a living reality in America. Among the many people and events which could be studied are: Samuel Sewall, Crispus Attucks, Peter Salem, the abolition societies, Denmark Vesey, Nat Turner, Dred Scott, Blanche K. Bruce, the Niagara Movement and Martin Luther King, Jr. Other areas of civics are of equal importance. It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher to refer as often as possible to this resource bulletin and make applications wherever feasible. For example, in the study of community health, it would be worthwhile to note the contributions of Dr. Charles R. [illegible] to the preservation of blood plasma.	Elective One Semester Each (Interchangeable)
	World Geography	R	The materi[illegible] this bulletin should be fully integrated into the teaching of world geograph[illegible] help show how vital geography is in helping all students to	

	World Geography	R	The material in this bulletin should be fully integrated into the teaching of world geography to help show how vital geography is in helping all students to understand man and his enviroment. The following topics should provide an easy frame of reference: the interdependence of all the peoples of the earth, respect for human rights and dignity should be world wide, how the Negro American is becoming more intimately involved in world activities beyond American shores.	
	Civics—Occupational Planning	B	The teacher should make wide use of the resource material in this bulletin to help encourage students to have pride in themselves, their heritage, and their country. A study of the accomplishments of men and women who have succeeded in spite of tremendous handicaps could make a lasting impression upon the students. A further study of the achievements of Negro Americans in sports might also prove to be helpful and inspiring.	Required One Year
10	Modern European History	H-R	Events in Europe today daily affect the lives and well-being of all Americans. If students are to understand these events, they must piece them together and join them with other facts that are not in today's news facts of yesterday and years gone by. Thus, a knowledge of the Old World helps all of us to better understand, interpret, and function in today's New World. As this course develops, the teacher should find it highly desirable and beneficial to integrate material from the bulletin in the following units: The Renaissance and the Reformation, the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, the scramble for underdeveloped nations, and the world today.	Elective One Year
	World History	R-G	This survey course in the history of civilization provides many opportunities for effectively utilizing the material from this bulletin. A desirable outcome of this course is to cultivate in each student an appreciation of the contributions that all peoples have made to man's progress. As the story of man's progress unfolds, and time permits, it should be possible to study, discuss, and integrate into the course each of the following topics: origin of the Negro, his role and contributions in ancient and medieval civilization, early African civilization, the story of slavery in different parts of the world, and minority groups and their contributions today.	Elective One Year
	World History-Experimental	B	In this basic learnings course in world history designed and structured to meet the needs and interests of slow learners, material from this bulletin should be readily and widely used by the teacher. Since developing reading skills and vocabulary building are important instructional outcomes of this course, it would be well to utilize the information and vocabulary contained herein to facilitate both. Examples of vocabulary words that may prove to be both stimulating and beneficial are: assemble, abolition, boycott, compromise, culture, democracy, equality, freedom, justice, protest, slavery and unemployment.	Elective One Year
	World Geography	B	As the development of this course permits, and where it can be integrated smoothly, the material in this bulletin could be used to enable students to understand and appreciate the problems of a world in revolution, that living in today's world requires a thorough knowledge and understanding of the attitudes, needs, and wants of peoples of other nations. A study of the national heroes of some African and South American countries could be initiated.	Required One Year
11	American History	All	THIS IS THE CAPSTONE COURSE IN THE USE AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THIS RESOURCE BULLETIN, THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY. WHEREEVER POSSIBLE, IT SHOULD BE USED BOTH AS BASIC AND/OR SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL TO ENLIVEN AND ENRICH THE STUDY OF AMERICAN HISTORY THROUGHOUT THE ENTIRE SCHOOL YEAR. AS THE PANORAMA OF AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT UNFOLDS, EACH SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER SHOULD MAKE EVERY EFFORT TO DEVELOP IN EACH STUDENT A KNOWLEDGE OF AND AN APPRECIATION FOR THE ROLE AND CONTRIBUTIONS	Required One Year

	World Geography	B	As the development of this course permits, and where it can be integrated smoothly, the material in this bulletin could be used to enable students to understand and appreciate the problems of a world in revolution, that living in today's world requires a thorough knowledge and understanding of the attitudes, needs, and wants of peoples of other nations. A study of the national heroes of some African and South American countries could be initiated.	Required One Year
11	American History	All	THIS IS THE CAPSTONE COURSE IN THE USE AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THIS RESOURCE BULLETIN, THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY. WHEREEVER POSSIBLE, IT SHOULD BE USED BOTH AS BASIC AND/OR SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL TO ENLIVEN AND ENRICH THE STUDY OF AMERICAN HISTORY THROUGHOUT THE ENTIRE SCHOOL YEAR. AS THE PANORAMA OF AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT UNFOLDS, EACH SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER SHOULD MAKE EVERY EFFORT TO DEVELOP IN EACH STUDENT A KNOWLEDGE OF AND AN APPRECIATION FOR THE ROLE AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF ALL MINORITY GROUPS TO THE WELFARE AND PROGRESS OF OUR NATION. AS THE COURSE DEVELOPS CHRONOLOGICALLY OR TOPICALLY, EACH UNIT OF THE BULLETIN SHOULD BE INTEGRATED FULLY AND SMOOTHLY TO INSURE A WELL ROUNDED AND OBJECTIVE PRESENTATION.	Required One Year
12	American Government	All	Political institutions have emerged out of man's social and economic needs. The national state and its government are the chief, universal, political institutions of man. One of the prime requisites of the national state is unity. Our country is no exception. Without the unity of all of our people, a willingness to reconcile differences for the common good and general welfare of all, our country is in danger of falling from inside disorder and outside aggression. Material from this bulletin could be used to help break down distrust and friction among students because of racial, religious, and sectional differences. A study of distinguished Negro Americans who have served our government at home and abroad could be introduced.	Required One Semester
	Sociology	All	Material from this bulletin highlighting the work of eminent sociologists such as Frazier, Haynes, Johnson and Cox could make the study of sociology more meaningful to all students. The philosophy underlying public education in the District of Columbia could also receive major emphasis, viz: "We do not seek to educate the children entrusted to our care as colored children nor as white children for the separate benefit of any one group, but our desire and goal is to educate all children together for the common good and mutual benefit of all."	Elective One or Two Semesters
	Advanced Geography	H	The impact of Negro American migration upon population trends and the subsequent effects of this migration upon urban life and economy could be stressed. The opportunities for increased trade and economic ties with the "new nations" of Asia and Africa could also be emphasized. Certainly it would be well to stress that our modern methods of communication and transportation have so shrunk our world that it is imperative that all men live together as neighbors and as brothers.	Elective One Semester
	Latin American History	H	It is very important in our world today for the United States and the countries of Latin America to be on friendly terms. There is a mutual need in trade and also in cooperation in helping to maintain a world at peace. If we are to have this cooperation, we must be good neighbors. In order to be good neighbors, we must know and understand them, their history, their culture, and their way of life. Utilizing material from this bulletin the following could be stressed: slavery in South America and the Spanish West Indies, the leader for Haitian independence, Toussaint L'Ouverture, the impact of this Haitian struggle for freedom on the course of American history.	Elective One Semester
	Economics	H-R	Today, more than ever, it is vital that all students gain a basic understanding of	Elective

	Sociology	All	Material from this bulletin highlighting the work of eminent sociologists such as Frazier, Haynes, Johnson and Cox could make the study of sociology more meaningful to all students. The philosophy underlying public education in the District of Columbia could also receive major emphasis, viz: "We do not seek to educate the children entrusted to our care as colored children nor as white children for the separate benefit of any one group, but our desire and goal is to educate all children together for the common good and mutual benefit of all."	Elective One or Two Semesters
	Advanced Geography	H	The impact of Negro American migration upon population trends and the subsequent effects of this migration upon urban life and economy could be stressed. The opportunities for increased trade and economic ties with the "new nations" of Asia and Africa could also be emphasized. Certainly it would be well to stress that our modern methods of communication and transportation have so shrunk our world that it is imperative that all men live together as neighbors and as brothers.	Elective One Semester
	Latin American History	H	It is very important in our world today for the United States and the countries of Latin America to be on friendly terms. There is a mutual need in trade and also in cooperation in helping to maintain a world at peace. If we are to have this cooperation, we must be good neighbors. In order to be good neighbors, we must know and understand them, their history, their culture, and their way of life. Utilizing material from this bulletin the following could be stressed: slavery in South America and the Spanish West Indies, the leader for Haitian independence, Toussaint L'Ouverture, the impact of this Haitian struggle for freedom on the course of American history.	Elective One Semester
	Economics	H-R	Today, more than ever, it is vital that all students gain a basic understanding of our economic system. They need it for responsible citizenship and for help in building their own personal lives in our modern, everyday world. Material from this bulletin could be used to teach the contributions of all Americans to the growth and stability of our economy. Some areas which could be stressed are: the Negro American in business, his contributions to the rise and importance of labor, his growth as a land and home owner, and that his "image" as only a "hewer of wood and drawer of water" is incorrect and unjustified.	Elective One Semester
	World Problems—Democracy and Communism	H-R	Many problems of the world still remain unsolved. War, poverty, illiteracy, disease, and prejudice still afflict the human race. A study of the United Nations and this organization's efforts to solve some of these problems is one of the major units of this course. A highlight during the study of this unit could be an emphasis on the work of Dr. Ralph J. Bunche. Material from this bulletin could also be used in other units namely: the future of undeveloped countries, the "cold war," regional understandings and pacts, democracy and communism.	Elective One Semester
	Law	H-R-G	The "here-and-now" uses of law could be stressed. Use the material in this bulletin to help arouse and maintain a keen interest in a knowledge of, respect for, and obedience to the law. A study of distinguished Negro American jurists and lawyers might be initiated. An important outcome of a study of law for all students is the development of an understanding of personal rights and obligations and an appreciation for the legal implications involved in human relations.	Elective One or Two Semesters

CHRONOLOGY OF SIGNIFICANT EVENTS - THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY

1434 - The Portuguese were the first European people to take part in the slave trade. In 1434 Antonie Gonzales took several slaves to Portugal. This year marked the beginning of the great slave trade system. Slavery was introduced in the New World as early as 1502.

1492 - Negro slaves, servants and explorers came to the New World with Spanish and French explorers. Pedro Alonzo Pietro, pilot of Columbus' ship, Nina, is identified by some scholars as a Negro. (The documentation on this is inconclusive). Negroes were with Balboa, Cortez, Menedez, Pizarro, and Ponce de Leon.

1527 - Estevanico, or Little Stephen, explorer of New Mexico and Arizona, accompanied Narvaez on his ill-fated expedition and continued with his successor Cabeza de Vaca.

1619 - Introduction of the "peculiar institution of slavery" into the English colonies. Arrival of the first African slaves (20) at Jamestown, Virginia.

1736 - Benjamin Banneker, mathematician, astronomer, surveyor and inventor, was born about ten miles from Baltimore, Maryland. He published an almanac in 1792 and was appointed by President Washington to assist Major L'Enfant in laying out the City of Washington, D.C. November 9.

1770 - The Boston Massacre took place on King (now State) Street, Boston, Massachusetts. It was brought on by the jeers and taunts of a segment of the civilian population directed at British troops who eventually fired on the civilians, killing five persons and injuring several others. Crispus Attucks, a Negro, mulatto or Indian, of large stature, probably a runaway slave, and a sailor at the time, led the civilian population and was killed, thus becoming one of the first persons to give his life in the cause of freedom for the American colonies. This event is considered to be one of the incidents that lead to the American Revolution. March 5.

1775 - Battle of Bunker Hill, or Breed's Hill. A number of Negroes fought with the Revolutionary Army troops on Breed's Hill, among them being Peter Salem, Salem Poor, Titus Coburn, Cato Howe, Alexander Ames, Seymour Burr, Pomp Fiske, and Prince Hall, founder of the Negro Masonic Order. There were Negro soldiers in the Revolutionary Army from every one of the original thirteen colonies. The 5,000 or more Negroes who participated in the Revolutionary War fought in integrated units.

1787 - Northwest Ordinance. As a result of the bravery shown by Negro soldiers, the Continental Congress prohibited the importation of slaves and adopted the Ordinance of 1787. This provided that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime, should exist in the Northwest Territory.

1800 - A slave named Gabriel Prosser organized some 1,000 slaves and made plans to attack Richmond, Virginia. A storm, however, forced cancellation and two slaves became frightened and told their master. Prosser and fifteen of his followers were hanged.

1813 - During an attack by Creek Indians on Fort Mims, located north of the Florida border, approximately 400 out of 500 persons in the fort were massacred. Hester (sometimes called Ester), a Negro woman slave, though wounded, escaped from the stockade, paddled about 15 miles in a canoe up the Alabama River to Fort Stoddard, the first to carry the news of the attack to General Claiborne. This incident was an event of the War of 1812. August 30.

1815 - Over 500 free Negro soldiers participated in the Battle of New Orleans under the command of Andrew Jackson.

1817 - Frederick Douglass, lecturer and journalist, was born at Tuckahoe, Maryland. His mother was a slave. He taught himself to read and write. He showed talent as an orator and was employed by the Anti-Slavery Society as one of its lecturers. His freedom was bought while he was on a lecturing tour in England. He was appointed secretary of the Commission to San Domingo in 1871; in 1872, presidential elector; in 1877, marshal for the District of Columbia; then commissioner of deeds for that District; and in 1889, Minister to Haiti. February 15.

1822 - Denmark Vesey, a highly intelligent Negro, who was a carpenter and had managed to purchase his freedom, carefully organized a rebellion in Charleston, South Carolina. Just when everything was ready, a house slave told his master and the whole plot fell through. Vesey and thirty-seven others were hanged.

1827 - Hiram Rhoads Revels, a clergyman, was born at Fayetteville, Cumberland County, North Carolina. He served with the Union forces during the Civil War; became an alderman of the City of Natchez, Mississippi, in 1868; served as the first Negro member of the United States Senate (1870-1871) as a Republican from Mississippi; and was a college president. September 27.

1831 - Nat Turner, a slave-plowman by day and a preacher by night, led the biggest slave rebellion of all. He and his band began by killing his master and family. Then he and his men marched through the countryside of southern Virginia picking up followers and killing slave owners. Before the rebellion was crushed, over sixty white persons were killed. Nat Turner was finally captured and hanged.

1851 - One of the peak years of the "underground railroad". Harriet Tubman, the "Moses" of her people and probably the most famous of the conductors of the underground railroad, spent many years going back into the South to bring escaped slaves to freedom. At one time, $40,000 was offered for her capture. In all, Harriet Tubman guided over 300 slaves to freedom. During the ten years before the Civil War it is estimated that about 75,000 slaves escaped to freedom.

1852 - March 20, first edition of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* by Harriet Beecher Stowe was issued.

1857 - The Dred Scott decision by the United States Supreme Court - federal territory opened to slavery, citizenship denied to American Negroes.

1862 - Robert Smalls, Civil War hero and Reconstruction Congressman from South Carolina, was the major hero in the following episode: While a seaman on the *Planter*, a former cotton steamer converted by the Confederate forces into a gunboat, he and the other Negro crew members made an amazing escape from Confederate to Union jurisdiction and turned the ship, a prize of war, over to Union forces. Congress voted him a considerable sum of money for his contraband.

1862 - President Lincoln sent a special message to Congress on March 6, 1862, and that body passed a joint resolution on April 10, declaring that the United States ought to cooperate with any state which would adopt gradual abolition, by paying for the slaves. On April 16, an estimated 3,100 slaves in the District of Columbia were thus freed, more than eight months before the Emancipation Proclamation became operative. April 16.

1862 -65 Approximately 180,000 Negro soldiers fought in the Union Army, organized into 166 all-Negro regiments. They participated in 449 battles, 39 of them major engagements. Sixteen (16) Negro soldiers received the Congressional Medal of Honor for gallantry in action. There were nearly 30,000 Negro sailors in the Union Navy. Four (4) Negro sailors received the Congressional Medal of Honor for their heroic deeds.

1863 - Emancipation Proclamation issued by President Abraham Lincoln. January 1.

1865 - Thirteenth Amendment adopted, abolishing slavery throughout the United States of America. December 18.

1867 - Howard University chartered by Act of Congress. Largest of the centers for higher education for Negroes founded in the years following the Civil War.

1868 - Fourteenth Amendment adopted, making the Negro a citizen. July 28.

1870 - Fifteenth Amendment adopted, giving the Negro the right to vote. March 30.

1875 - Blanche K. Bruce, United States senator from the state of Mississippi, became a member of the Senate, the only Negro to serve a full term.

1877 - Graduation of Henry O. Flipper, the first Negro to graduate from West Point.

1893 - Dr. Daniel Hale Williams, a Negro, performed the "world's first successful heart operation" at Chicago's Provident Hospital.

1896 - The Plessy vs. Ferguson decision by the United States Supreme Court upholding the doctrine of "separate but equal" as it relates to the civil rights of American Negroes.

1901 - Booker T. Washington dined at the White House with President Theodore Roosevelt. The South was highly critical of this event. October 6.

1904 - Ralph Johnson Bunche, diplomat and educator, was born at Detroit, Michigan. The grandson of a slave, he graduated from the University of California at Los Angeles and received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Harvard University. He became a member of the faculty of Howard University, serving as a professor. He worked on the drafting committee for the charter of the United Nations and was appointed to a special commission of the United Nations on Palestine. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for 1950. August 7.

1905 - Niagara Movement. A group of Negro intellectuals, led by W. E. B. DuBois, William Monroe Trotter, J. Max Barber, John Hope and others met near Niagara Falls, New York, July 11 - 13, and demanded the abolition of all distinctions based on race.

1908 - Jack Johnson defeated Tommy Burns at Sydney, Australia, to become the first Negro heavyweight boxing champion. December 26.

1909 - NAACP founded at New York City meeting of whites and Negroes with Moorfield Storey, a white Boston lawyer, becoming the first president.

Discovery of the North Pole. Highlighted the contribution of Matthew Henson, a Negro, the only man to accompany Admiral Robert E. Peary on all of his polar expeditions and the first man to actually reach the North Pole.

1910 - National Urban League, organized in New York and dedicated to overcoming discrimination in employment. Eugene Kinkle Jones, first executive secretary, 1914.

1916 - Initial publication of the Journal of Negro History by Dr. Carter G. Woodson. The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History was founded almost a year earlier in 1915.

1918 - Armistice signed, end of World War I. Approximately 37,000 Negro soldiers and 1,400 commissioned officers participated. Three Negro regiments, 369th, 371st, and 372nd, received from France the Croix de Guerre for valor. Several Negro soldiers were decorated for bravery. The first two American soldiers decorated for bravery in France were two Negroes, Henry Johnson and Needham Roberts.

1934 - Arthur W. Mitchell, Chicago, Illinois, first Negro Democratic Congressman to be elected. November 7.

1937 - William H. Hastie, appointed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt and confirmed by the Senate as judge of the Federal District Court in the Virgin Islands, the first Negro to be appointed a federal judge. March 26.

1940 - Benjamin Oliver Davis, Sr., promoted to brigadier-general, the first Negro general in American history. October 16.

1941 - President Franklin D. Roosevelt issued Executive Order Number 8802 establishing the United States Fair Employment Practices Commission to prohibit discrimination in defense industries because of race, color, creed or national origin. June 25.

1942 - Doris Miller, Navy messman, on the battleship *Arizona* at Pearl Harbor, awarded the Navy Cross for courage and bravery "above and beyond the call of duty." (Shot down at least four enemy planes.)

1943 - Wesley A. Brown, a product of the public schools of Washington, D. C. became the first Negro to graduate from the Naval Academy at Annapolis.

National CORE (Congress of Racial Equality) organization founded.

1947 - For the first time in baseball history, a Negro, Jackie Robinson, played with a major league team, the Brooklyn Dodgers, in an exhibition game with the New York Yankees. April 11.

1948 - President Harry S. Truman issued Executive Order Number 9981 establishing as a policy for the armed forces "equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons, without regard to race, color or national origin." July 26.

1949 - Congressman William L. Dawson from Chicago, Illinois, approved as Chairman of the House Committee on Government Operations, the first Negro ever to head a standing committee of Congress.

1951 - Racial segregation in the District of Columbia in places of public accommodation (restaurants, theaters, hotels, etc.) ruled illegal by the Municipal Court of Appeals, May 24. This decision was later reaffirmed by the Supreme Court, June 8, 1953.

Pfc. William Thompson of Brooklyn, New York, awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor posthumously for heroism in Korea, June 21. This was the first time for Congress to grant a Congressional Medal of Honor to a Negro since the Spanish-American War.

1954 - Public School integration begun in the District of Columbia. September 7.

1955 - Beginning of the bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama. December 5.

1957 - SCLC (Southern Christian Leadership Conference) organized in New Orleans, Louisiana, with Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. as president. February 14.

Civil Rights Act. Congress passed first Civil Rights legislation since 1875.

Federal troops ordered to Little Rock, Arkansas, by President Eisenhower to prevent interference with school integration at Central High School. September 24.

1959 - Public school education abandoned by Prince Edward County, Virginia, Board of Supervisors to prevent school integration. June 26.

1960 - "Sit-in Movement" begun by four students from North Carolina A. and T. College at a five and dime store in Greensboro, North Carolina. February 1.

SNCC (Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee) organized at a meeting on the campus of Shaw University, Raleigh, North Carolina. April 15 - 17.

1961 - Adam Clayton Powell, Negro Congressman from New York City, became Chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee. January 3.

Robert C. Weaver sworn in as administrator of HHFA (Housing and Home Finance Agency), highest federal post ever held by an American Negro.

Thurgood Marshall nominated by President Kennedy to be a judge of the United States Court of Appeals. September 23.

1962 - James H. Meredith, escorted by federal marshals, became the first known Negro to register at the University of Mississippi. October 1.

1963 - March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. To help dramatize the Negro's 1963 revolution, over 210,000 whites and Negroes assembled from all parts of the nation and abroad to march from the Washington Monument to the Lincoln Memorial in well-behaved dignity to sing, pray, and hear speeches demanding the passage of Civil Rights legislation, integration of all public schools, a federal program to train and place all unemployed workers, and a federal Fair Employment Practices Act barring all job discrimination. August 28.

John Fitzgerald Kennedy, 35th President of the United States, and champion of human rights for all citizens, regardless of race, creed, or color, assassinated in Dallas, Texas, allegedly by Lee Harvey Oswald. November 22.

A CAPSULE GLIMPSE OF SOME DISTINGUISHED NEGRO AMERICANS

MARIAN ANDERSON (1908 -   ). Philadelphia contralto, was a routine singer in America until Arturo Toscanini, hearing her at Salzburg, Austria, in 1935 declared: "Only once in a hundred years do we hear a voice like hers." She was the first Negro to sing with the Metropolitan Opera Association. Her most dramatic hour was her 1939 Easter Sunday subtle rebuke of the DAR before 75,000 people assembled in front of and around the Lincoln Memorial and Tidal Basin. Presidential Medal of Freedom recipient, 1963.

BENJAMIN BANNEKER (1731 - 1806). A Maryland free Negro interested in and displaying a remarkable knowledge of mathematics, the mechanical sciences, the stars, the cycle of the four seasons and the advantages of peace over war, as well as the abolition of slavery. Achieving greatness after forty, he was recommended to President George Washington, by his friend Thomas Jefferson, to be a member of the commission to survey and plan the City of Washington. For two years Banneker carried on this work. Then in 1791, he returned to his farm in Maryland, near Baltimore, and began writing and publishing an almanac which was popular in American households for the next ten years.

MARY McLEOD BETHUNE (1875 - 1955). Born in Mayesville, South Carolina, she was the seventeenth child in her family and the first member not born a slave. Utilizing charm, sensitive, soul-mirroring eyes and dynamic personality, she built Daytona Normal and Industrial Institute into Bethune-Cookman College. Poise and purpose attracted the F. D. Roosevelts, forming an association which enabled her to become an interracial giant in the humanities and the fountain head of unified Negro women in the nation. She was awarded the Spingarn Medal in 1935 for having reached great heights of achievement in the field of education.

CHARLOTTE HAWKINS BROWN (1882 - 1960). Founded Palmer Institute in memory of Alice Freeman Palmer at Sedalia, North Carolina, in 1901 and built it into a $1,500,000 educational institution by 1926. Her notable work in education gained her many honors in various parts of the country throughout her lifetime. Especially gifted to teach and prepare young women for useful careers, she became a legend in her native state of North Carolina.

RALPH JOHNSON BUNCHE (1904 -). A former professor of political science at Howard University; presently Under Secretary of the United Nations, the highest U.N. post held by any American; the first Negro to command an important function in Western internationalism in more than 1,600 years; the only American of color ever to be awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. So honored, because of his courageous work in settling the Arab-Israeli dispute in 1948. Presidential Medal of Freedom recipient, 1963.

NANNIE BURROUGHS (1880 - 1960). Probably the most dynamic churchwoman of the century, in 1909 founded the National Training School for Women, at Washington, D. C. Miss Burroughs lashed many leaders to action, in times of distress and trouble. During the early years of the Depression, she scored Negro ministers for being "long on talk but short on action, when faced with the terrible conditions of the Depression." An active catalyst in the Baptist Church, coast-to-coast, Miss Burroughs lived an active and vigorously long life. A key figure in the Women's Convention, Auxiliary of the National Baptist Convention, she once raised over $350,000 to maintain and improve her training school.

GEORGE WASHINGTON CARVER (1864 - 1943). Brilliant chemist of Tuskegee Institute, developed some 300 products from the peanut alone. He also utilized sweet potatoes, wood shavings, clay, and cotton stalks to create many new substances ranging from candy to synthetic marble. For his services, which brought great economic profit to the South, he won numerous honors. Among the many honors he received were the Spingarn Medal in 1923 and the Roosevelt Medal in 1939.

FREDERICK DOUGLASS (1817 - 1895). The greatest Negro American of the nineteenth century. For well over sixty years, Douglass burned the torch of freedom brightly. From a Maryland slave pen he made the ascent to receive many public honors, among these may be listed his service as United States marshall and Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia, and as minister to Haiti. A man among men, his great oratory, his dedication and sureness in the eventual triumph of right over wrong, serves to make his life a beacon light of hope for all succeeding generations.

DR. CHARLES R. DREW (1904 - 1950). Dr. Drew's leap to world-wide fame during 1940 was based primarily on his personal mastery of the blood plasma theory, which he eminently helped to perfect at McGill University, Canada, in the late thirties. A great athlete and graduate of Amherst, a brilliant coach at Morgan State in the mid-twenties, Dr. Drew became a member of the U. S. College of Surgeons, eternally remembered for developing the blood banks that saved the lives of many during World War II and after.

CHARLES H. HOUSTON (1895 - 1950). Possibly the greatest Constitutional lawyer since the days of Louis Brandeis, this Washington, D. C. son of a lawyer, rated Phi Beta Kappa at Amherst, and was a distinguished Harvard Law School graduate. He came into prominence in the early forties, with repeated victories before the Supreme Court representing the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. An inspirer of Thurgood Marshall, who accepted his mantle with credit, this judge's lawyer passed away at a time when his aptitudes and prominence were at their zenith. He was awarded the Spingarn Medal in 1950.

ERNEST E. JUST (1884 - 1940). One of the first Negro scholars to make an international impression, during the first two decades of this century. Named the first Spingarn Medalist in 1915 at the age of 31, he became a world figure after 1924 when leading biologists of Germany considered him the best fitted scientist-biologist to write a treatise on fertilization. His later thesis, on the cytoplasm of the cell, was so far-ranged that experts said he was 25 years "ahead of his contemporaries" in biological comprehensions. He achieved his Ph.D. at Chicago in 1916 about six months after the Spingarn Medal award.

MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR. (1929 -). Born in Atlanta, Georgia, Dr. King was ordained to the ministry in 1947. In 1948 he earned the A.B. degree from Morehouse College, and in 1951 the B.D. degree from Crozer Theological Seminary, Chester, Pa. He attended the University of Pennsylvania, Harvard University, and Boston University where he received his Ph.D. degree in the field of Systematic Theology. A militant leader for freedom and equality, Dr. King is presently located in Atlanta, as president of the SCLC (Southern Christian Leadership Conference), a non-violent direct action group whose influence is felt in every section of the nation.

KELLY MILLER (1863 - 1939). Born in South Carolina; noted educator, mathematician, essayist, and author; for many years Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, Howard University. Wrote the famous World War I polemic, "The Disgrace of Democracy."

JACKIE ROBINSON (1919 -). Star athlete and graduate of the University of California at Los Angeles, was the first Negro to play in organized major league baseball. He spent his entire professional career with the Brooklyn Dodgers and in 1961 was elected to the Baseball Hall of Fame.

MADAME C. J. WALKER (1871 - 1951). Her life and accomplishments exemplify America in the best Horatio Alger tradition. A St. Louis laundress at 28, a business tycoon at 40, the first U. S. woman to earn more than a million dollars on her own initiative and perseverance. Madame Walker created a new world for Negro women in America. Decrying "hair straightener" as a label, she espoused her "Walker System." Her many successors are nobly carrying on in her name.

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON (1856 - 1915). Born a slave and educated at Hampton, he founded Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. As advisor to Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Taft and as an advocate of vocational education, he became a powerful leader in many areas, especially the South. He is the only Negro in the Hall of Fame at New York University. With the seemingly impossible task of changing a penniless, slavery-stunted people, into a compact mass of agricultural or mechanical technicians, Booker T. Washington, like Columbus who discovered the West while seeking the East, plunged courageously into the undertaking. Today his ideas of practical education now cover the world, classifying him as a great educator for all time.

PHILLIS WHEATLEY (1753 - 1784). Through a combination of personal talents and fortuitous circumstances, a few slaves were able to become outstanding individuals. Such a slave was Phillis Wheatley, brought from Senegal as a child and sold on the docks at Boston in 1761 to John Wheatley, a tailor. He gave the girl the family name and his wife taught her to read and write. Before she was twenty Phillis achieved some renown as a poet. She was eventually given her freedom and a trip to London, where she read her poems before the nobility. Her fame grew and she became one of the best known poets of New England. Her poems, "His Excellency General Washington" and "Liberty and Peace", truly captured the patriotic spirit of the colonial independence movement.

DANIEL HALE WILLIAMS (1858 - 1941). Born in Hollidaysburg, Pennsylvania, near Pittsburgh, he graduated from the Northwestern University School of Medicine in 1883. Ten years later, at Chicago's Provident Hospital, he performed the world's first successful surgery upon the human heart. This epochal performance guaranteed the start of a type of surgery thought far beyond the human province since the third century. A great teacher at Meharry College, he became a Fellow of the American College of Surgeons in 1913

CARTER G. WOODSON (1875 - 1950). Founder of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History at Chicago in 1915. He earned the Ph.D. in history at Harvard in 1912. By 1920, his penetrating thesis, "The Mis-Education of the Negro," criticized the great universities of the country for ignoring, almost completely, the cultural aspects and accomplishments of the darker peoples down through the ages. A former teacher at Armstrong High School in Washington, D.C. he gave Negroes a much needed pride and self-respect in themselves and their achievements.

CHARLES YOUNG (1864 - 1922). The third Negro to be admitted to the United States Military Academy at West Point, he graduated in 1889. He served as a major in the Spanish-American War, captain of the 9th Cavalry in the Philippines, later commanded the 10th Cavalry. Appointed military attache to Liberia and Haiti, he was the highest ranking Negro officer (lieutenant-colonel) at the outbreak of World War I. When enlistments began, however, he was retired on grounds of health. Seeking to prove he was not unfit, he rode a horse, alone, over 600 miles from Ohio to Washington. He was then assigned to non-combatant service as a military attache, but was not permitted to serve in Europe. In 1915, he was awarded the Spingarn Medal.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Refer also to the Selected Bibliography at the end of each Unit -

Aptheker, Herbert. A Documentary History of the Negro People in the United States. New York: Citadel Press. 1951.
A well-edited and valuable collection of a wide variety of source material relating to American Negroes which is not readily available elsewhere.

Ashmore, Harry S. The Negro and the Schools. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1954.
A discussion of efforts by Negroes to obtain educational opportunities, especially in southern jurisdictions. A discussion and appraisal of the segregation cases of 1954 are included.

Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard. New York: Rhinehart. 1956.
An objective and well-written study of the evolution of Negro leadership from 1770 to the present. The approach is from the point of view of individuals rather than organizations.

Brawley, Benjamin. Negro Builders and Heroes. U. of N. C. 1937
A clearly written and readily grasped collection of biographical sketches of American Negroes who in their day made valuable and significant contributions to the American way of life.

Broderick, Francis L. W.E.B. DuBois: Negro Leader in Time of Crisis. Stanford. 1959
The volume represents biography at its best, for it is an excellent interpretation of the intellectual development of DuBois and an appraisal of his impact upon his times.

Brown, Sterling, Davis, Arthur P. and Lee, Ulysses. The Negro Caravan.
Arranged by periods, this is an anthology of writing by Negroes since the days of the slave-girl poet, Phyllis Wheatley. It includes plays, poems, and essays, and gives an excellent portrayal of the Negro mind as revealed by contemporaries.

Buckmaster, Henrietta. Let My People Go. Beacon. 1959.
Characterized by dramatic incident and human interest, this is a swiftly paced narrative of those Negroes and their white co-workers who opposed slavery during the period characterized by Harriet Martineau as "the martyr age" of United States history.

Buckner, Moon, ed. A Primer For White Folks. New York: Doubleday, Doran. 1945.
This is a splendid and successful effort to present to the average American a general picture of the Negro, his background, and contributions. Material for the volume was contributed by a group of thirty leaders and scholars of both races.

Butcher, Margaret Just. The Negro in American Culture. New York: Knopf. 1956.

This survey of the Negro in America, based mainly upon notes and materials left by the Negro scholar, Alain Locke, traces both folk and formal contributions of Negroes to American culture. Sections dealing with the Negro and the arts and literature are especially well done.

Drake, St. Clair and Cayton, Horace. Black Metropolis: A Study of Negro Life in a Northern City. New York: Harcourt, Brace. 1945.

A thorough and objective investigation of the problems met by Negroes in Chicago and the development of their social institutions there.

DuBois, W.E.B. The Souls of Black Folk. Chicago. 1903. (Also published as a paperback, Greenwich, Conn.: Faucett Publications. 1961)

This scholarly work, which went through twenty editions, is perhaps Dr. DuBois' most successful volume. It is a vigorous, but balanced statement of the Negro's cause at the turn of the twentieth century.

Essien, Odum E. U. Black Nationalism: A Search for an Identity. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1962.

The most complete history and appraisal of the Black Muslim movement available. An excellent chapter on the historical development of black nationalism is included.

Franklin, John Hope. From Slavery to Freedom. Knopf. 1956.

Deservedly popular, this is the best general history of the American Negro. A well-written survey, balanced in tone and emphasis, it embodies the fruits of the most recent scholarship.

Frazier, E. Franklin. The Negro in the United States. New York: Macmillan. 1957.

One of the better of the general histories of the Negro in the United States. It places strong emphasis upon Negro social institutions and their interaction with the larger American society.

Herskovits, Melville. The Myth of the Negro Past. Beacon. 1958.

Based on years of scholarly research and travel, this is a book-length examination of the "myth" that the African who was brought to the New World was "culturally naked" and hence made no contribution to the building of the civilization of his new homeland.

Johnson, Charles S. Patterns of Negro Segregation. New York: Harper. 1943.

A carefully planned and executed sociological investigation and analysis of the techniques of segregation practiced in the United States which indicates the infinite variety which they assumed in different localities.

________________ Journal of Negro History. Washington, D.C.: Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. 1915--.

A scholarly quarterly, now in its forty-eighth volume, containing signed articles by American historians on virtually all phases of Negro history in the United States.

Kardiner, Abram and Ovesley, Lionel. The Mark of Oppression. New York: W. W. Norton. 1951.
This is a psychological study of the impact of identifiable social pressures, such as social caste, upon the development of the Negro and upon his personality traits.

Kennedy, Louise V. The Negro Peasant Turns Cityward. New York: Columbia University Press. 1930.
Despite its age this remains probably the best investigation of the northward migration of Negroes after the First World War and during the twenties. Reasons for the migration are delineated and the resultant effects appraised.

Logan, Rayford W. The Negro in American Life and Thought: The Nadir, 1877-1901. New York: Dial Press. 1954.
An excellent and objective study which concludes that the period covered was one of retrogression and decline with regard to Negro rights.

________________. What the Negro Wants. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1944.
This volume represents the views of fourteen Negro leaders and scholars, representing the conservative, moderate, and liberal positions, which attempt to interpret and define the Negro's ambitions and demands during the early forties.

Lomax, Louis E. The Negro Revolt. New York: Harper and Row. 1962.
A provocative, but controversial treatment of the Negro struggle for equality since 1955.

Mangum, Charles S. The Legal Status of the Negro. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1942.
A detailed account of cases and statutes from all jurisdictions regarding the Negro and race matters with particular reference to interpretations adopted by the courts.

Myrdal, Gunnar. An American Dilemma. 2Vs. New York: Harper. 1944.
A monumental and exhaustive study, sponsored by the Carnegie Institution, on virtually every aspect of the race question. The study has long been a valuable source of information for the historian and social scientist.

Nelson, Bernard H. The Fourteenth Amendment and the Negro Since 1920. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. 1946.
A treatment, in ample detail, of the broadening of Negro rights largely as a result of litigation before the Supreme Court prior to 1945.

Northrup, Herbert. Organized Labor and the Negro. New York: Harper, 1944.
This is a competent and objective investigation of efforts to integrate the Negro worker into the ranks of organized labor during the Great Depression and immediately afterwards.

President's Committee on Civil Rights. To Secure These Rights: A Report. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office. 1947. (Also published privately by Simon and Schuster, 1947.)
The report of the President's Committee represents a thorough inquiry into the failure of America to realize the twin goals of freedom and equality for all citizens. Firm, unequivocable recommendations are made by the Committee to eliminate discrimination and inequality.

Redding, J. Saunders. On Being A Negro in America. Indianapolis: Bobs-Merril. 1951.
The volume is especially valuable for its treatment of the status and problems of American Negroes since 1945. Also available in paperback by the same publishers.

________________________ The Lonesome Road. New York: Doubleday. 1958.
A volume in the American Mainstream Series which historically appraises the Negro's role in America. Though much familiar ground is covered, the volume is well written, forceful, and generally appealing.

Washington, Booker T. Up from Slavery.
A classic in autobiographical letters, this is the story of a turn-of-the-century Negro leader whose career and achievements reflect something of the promise of American life.

Wesley, Charles H. Negro Labor in the United States: 1850-1925. New York: Vanguard Press. 1925.
An objective and exhaustive study of the Negro Worker, especially valuable for the period prior to 1900. The volume includes much social and economic information about the Negro generally in both the North and South.

Woodson, Carter G. and Wesley, Charles H. The Negro in Our History. Assoc. Publishers.
This is a useful standard work. It reflects the broad learning and the militant spirit of the path-breaker who led the way in the scientific study of the Negro's past.

Woodward, C. Vann. The Strange Career of Jim Crow. New York: Oxford University Press. 1955.
A concise and objective account of the development of racial segregation from the removal of federal troops in 1877 to the present.